

# The Nation

VOL. XXXVIII.—NO. 983.

THURSDAY, MAY 1, 1884.

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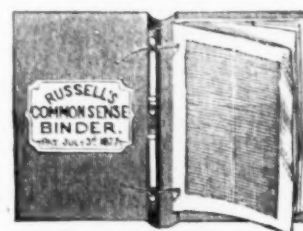
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY MAY 1, 1884.

## The Week.

THE so-called alliance of the Edmunds and Arthur forces at Utica has no other significance than this, that the supporters of Mr. Arthur, finding that they had no chance of electing their own men, gave their support to those who were least obnoxious to them. The Independents have at all times recognized the meritorious character of President Arthur's administration. They have considered his nomination inexpedient more by reason of his political associations than of his conduct in office. But they have not failed to award him the praise due to a safe, conservative, and judicious public policy. There is nothing wonderful, then, in the fact that the Arthur men in the Convention, finding themselves in imminent danger of being given over, bound hand and foot, to their avowed adversaries, turned their own strength into a channel which would save them from irreparable disaster; for if the Blaine men had secured the delegates-at-large from New York, or even half of them, Mr. Arthur's prospects would have collapsed at once, and the Stalwarts would have left Utica with a sense of disgrace as well as of defeat. As the case now stands, the Half-Breeds cannot brag over them at all the village and ward gatherings in the State, and this is no small consolation. It is a dreadful thing to a "boss" to be ridiculed for his want of success.

It is not too much to say that the result of the New York State Convention will have a powerful influence upon the National Convention. The mere numbers of the district delegates will count for little as against the voice of the State, which says distinctly that a candidate of the type and general equipment of Mr. Edmunds can probably carry the State and be elected. It is of small consequence in comparison whether Mr. Blaine or Mr. Arthur has the larger numerical following. The State itself has pronounced in favor of a third man, and has indicated what kind of a third man it prefers. It has given a verdict against the spoils system and in favor of reform. It has committed its potent influence in national politics to the hands of four uncompromising foes of the Machine. It has done more. It has ratified, in the most public manner, and by a unanimous vote, the efforts made by Mr. Roosevelt to purify the municipal government of New York. No young man of this generation has achieved so remarkable a civic triumph in so short a time. He well deserves to be made chairman of the delegation at Chicago. The prestige of success has thus far waited upon him, and New York will be well content to have her vote announced by one who not only desires to deliver her from misrule, but knows how it is to be done.

The Ohio Republican Convention calls for notice rather by reason of the platform adopted than of any distinct preferences shown for a

Presidential candidate. Senator Sherman appears to be the first choice of three of the delegates-at-large. The fourth is believed to favor Mr. Blaine. According to the outward aspect of the proceedings, the entire delegation is more concerned with the problem of party success than with the fortunes of any candidate. The platform was reported by the Committee in the usual way, with a resolution favoring the collection of "adequate revenue to defray the economical expenses of the Government, from duties upon foreign imports, so adjusted as to afford protection to the labor and the agricultural, manufacturing, and other industries of the country." The resolution, in its terms, excluded the taxes on whiskey and tobacco from the sources of national revenue, and the exclusion was apparently intentional. The existence of a windy faction in both parties, led by Mr. Kelley and Mr. Randall respectively, who favor the repeal of all internal-revenue taxes, in order that the treasury may be depleted and the demand for tariff reduction silenced, could not have been absent from the minds of the framers of the resolution. Yet the real significance of the platform was not at first noticed, and it was adopted without a division. Subsequently it was perceived that the resolution would expose the party to the charge of desiring to repeal the tax on distilled spirits. The vote was promptly reconsidered, the platform recommitted and reported back with changes of phraseology embracing "proper internal taxation" among the sources of national revenue. This action is more significant as an expression of public opinion in reference to the whiskey tax than if the resolution had been reported originally in the shape in which it finally passed. It shows that temperance is a stronger sentiment in the party than tariff, and that whenever the two come in collision, as they must eventually, duties on imports will be reduced rather than taxes on liquor.

The great Wharton Barker scheme for distributing the surplus among the States does not make its appearance in any of the State platforms. Even the Pennsylvania Republicans, who adopted it last year, have now dropped it. We cannot recall any other case in which a great idea, which had obtained any recognition at all, disappeared suddenly from the public gaze in this way. There could hardly have been a better illustration, however, than this scheme was, of the warping effect which the tariff exercises on the human mind in Pennsylvania. The faculties which are employed in finding excuses for keeping duties high are developed to an inordinate degree at the expense of the others, until the power of comparison is seriously impaired. In many very acute minds in that region the original object of taxation is almost forgotten, and some people seem to believe that the State may tax a man for fun if it can find no serious use for his money.

The adoption of Mr. Cox's amendment to the Shipping Bill by the large majority of 111 to 69, is a notable triumph over ancient preju-

dice, and a great step towards commercial freedom. The amendment provides that foreign built iron ships of not less than 4,000 tons burthen may be admitted to American registry, if owned wholly by American citizens, to be employed exclusively in foreign trade. We call this a triumph over prejudice because nothing but prejudice has maintained the prohibition against foreign ships. A ship is useful only for its carrying capacity, and if we permit the foreign carrier to come here with his cheap ship and compete with the American carrier in the transportation of goods and passengers to and from other countries, it is sheer bigotry and nonsense to prohibit American citizens from buying the cheap foreign ship if they wish to do so. Not only do we admit foreign competition in the carrying trade, but we admit the foreign ship itself, if it is hired and not owned. Any American citizen can charter a British steamer and keep it in service as long as he chooses. Any American citizen can invest as much money as he chooses in mortgages on foreign ships. In short, anything can be done under the old stupid navigation laws which produces competition in ships' earnings. It is only as to the flag and registry that the prohibition applies. An American and an English ship may sail side by side from New York to Havana year after year, in the service of an American citizen or company, the one actually and the other virtually owned by Americans, but only one of them can fly the American flag. The climax of absurdity is reached when we are told that the prohibition is necessary in order to restore the American flag to the ocean! If it is important to display the American flag on the high seas, surely one additional showing can be made by hoisting it over the steamship *British Empire* running in the Alexandre Line from New York to Cuba. By changing her name to *George Washington* she would make as brave a display of the stars and stripes as any ship launched by John Roach.

The bill reported in the House from the Committee on Education and Labor for the protection of American labor is a curious piece of legislation. It prohibits any alien coming to the United States under any agreement to work for anybody engaged in the business of mining, manufacturing, building, or transportation, or any corporation whatever. This part of it is what is called "taffy" for the laborer. Then comes "taffy" for the capitalist; for if a person or corporation complains to the President that he is about to start a business requiring skilled labor of a particular kind, of which a sufficient quantity cannot be obtained in the United States, the President, on being satisfied of the truth of the statement, may license such person or corporation to bring in a certain fixed number of such skilled laborers. This sort of legislation is of course sure to come if the present protective policy is persisted in. There is no sense or justice in protecting the products of labor without protecting the laborer also. It is useful, too, as showing the tendency of the protective system toward mediaeval restrictions on freedom of



every kind. It is now fast reaching the personal passport or ticket-of-leave stage in this country. From preventing skilled labor coming in under contract there is of course only one step to preventing its coming in at all except under a trades-union license.

We are gratified to note the increasing earnestness of the *Chicago Tribune's* opposition to silver.

"No time," it says, "for forcing more silver into the Sub-Treasury could be more inauspicious than this, when we are losing five millions of gold per week. The more silver this country coins, the more gold it must export. If Congress would abandon its attempt single-handed to sustain the silver markets of the world for the benefit of the silver-mine owners, and suspend the coinage of the silver dollar, our trade balances with Europe would be settled in silver instead of gold. But so long as the Government pays more for silver than any other buyer will give, it will be certain to get all it will take. It will be damage enough to our financial and commercial interests if this Congress fails to accept the warnings of our best financiers that it should discontinue the silver coinage."

This is remarkably sound doctrine, and although we think we have seen something like it before, it is not too late for the *Chicago Tribune* and the *Cincinnati Commercial* to render yeoman service in averting further mischief from the Silver Bill. The country has already lost a heavy sum by its purchases of silver, but this loss can be borne. It is the price which a nation often has to pay for its errors in political economy. The United States are rich enough to buy their experience, but having bought it and paid for it, there comes a time when further purchases in the same market become wholly wasteful for educational ends. The present zeal of the *Tribune* and *Commercial* shows that the limit has been reached, so far as the Republican party is concerned. The Democrats, of course, need another round of punishment, being thicker in skin and skull; but they will get it in due time.

The people of Maine are to vote in September on the adoption of a Constitutional amendment prohibiting forever the manufacture and sale of liquor in the State. An earnest discussion is going on there concerning the merits of this proposition, and a great deal of interesting and valuable information is being disclosed. Maine has been for a third of a century a State in which prohibitory statutes have ostensibly prevailed. All authorities agree that those statutes have not suppressed the sale of liquor, and all the most impartial of them agree that they have had little influence in even restricting the traffic. The judges of the courts declare openly that they believe the proposed amendment would not only be useless, but would abolish the present laws without putting any others in their place. Many eminent temperance advocates are against it, and the principal supporters of it appear to be the more fanatical temperance people, and a few politicians who hope to gain something by their advocacy. A remarkable array of statistics is shown by one of the opponents of the measure, in which it appears that under the present prohibitory statutes there are

in Maine 1,255 licensed liquor-dealers, or one for every 518 inhabitants. In the city of Portland there are 203, or one for every 177 inhabitants. These figures confirm the words of another opponent, who says: "So far as my observation goes, I am satisfied that there has been no material diminution of the amount of intoxicating liquor consumed in this State, and if there has been any advance in public sentiment as to the use of intoxicating liquors as a beverage, it cannot reasonably be attributed to prohibition."

General Badeau has resigned his position as Consul-General at Havana, and published a letter explaining his reasons. In general terms they are that the Administration has been "screening corruption," negotiating an "injurious and improper treaty with Spain," besides tolerating "injuries and insults put upon American citizens, American seamen, and American trade." He called the attention of the Administration to this "eight times," but it paid no attention to him, and even refused to let him resign, until he suddenly threatened to "appeal to the people." He challenges the Government to publish every despatch between himself and the State Department, "without one word omitted or one line mutilated"; but it is absurd to expect a hardened old fellow like Mr. Frelinghuysen to do this. A man who has been engaged in systematically screening corruption and betraying his country is not likely to stick at altering despatches. The letter shows one thing very plainly, that the diplomatic service is no place for a man of Badeau's goodness and purity. A consul who is forced to threaten his Government with exposure on the stump certainly ought not to remain a consul. That Mr. Frelinghuysen thought that he could keep him off the stump by refusing to accept his resignation, shows how little he understands either what General Badeau calls "our democratic system" or the General himself. The idea of using a consulate to get hold of Government secrets for Stump use is a very good one, and is all the better because the Government has no Stump of its own on which to reply.

General Butler has followed up his letter on strikes by holding a Greenback Convention in Massachusetts, which will send delegates to the National Convention at Indianapolis next month. The Convention, wisely made up of "men little known outside of their own localities," demanded Butler for President, as the man "through whose means the Supreme Court of the United States became the Greenbackers' allies." The question of General Butler's running for President this year is really a financial rather than a political one. His plan is to get, as he easily can with the expenditure of a comparatively small sum, the Indianapolis nomination, and then threaten the Democrats with putting in the field an Independent Butler ticket if they do not adopt him. The "masses," he will say, are communists at heart, and will prove it by recent votes cast in Massachusetts. Whether he can frighten the Democrats much depends simply upon whether they believe that he is really willing to stake a couple of millions on the result. There is a feeling among some of the conservative Democrats

that his "blowing" power on such subjects makes him formidable. Altogether it is an odd sort of an attempt, and will be watched with great interest, not only in the United States but throughout the civilized world.

The principal events of the week in business circles have been the shipment of upward of \$5,000,000 gold, a sharp decline in several of the specialties on the Stock Exchange, marked by renewed activity on the part of the bears, and an unexpected advance in wheat, accompanied by several failures on the bear side of the market. The gold export now reaches \$32,000,000 since the 21st of February, which is \$2,000,000 above the highest estimate made of the probable movement when it began. It has had little effect upon the rates for money as yet—proof sufficient that the loss of it is not harmful to any legitimate interest. It will continue, undoubtedly, until the amount of loanable funds is reduced to the actual requirements of business. Nobody need be alarmed about it until there is a marked rise in the rate of interest, and when this happens it will stop. The exportation signifies merely that gold can be used to better advantage on the other side of the water than here. It is the consequence of extreme dullness in trade. This dullness is shown in a decisive way in the increasing weakness of the coal stocks. The restriction of output has had no effect upon the prices of coal. It has not stimulated the demand, but it has produced a semi-panic among the holders of Reading, which declined nearly eight points during the week. Lackawanna fell off two points, and would have declined more had it not been artificially sustained. The restriction of output is an acknowledgment that the instrumentalities for the production of coal are thirty-three per cent. in excess of the demand. But the excess is really greater than this, and the public are discounting it by selling their holdings. Of the other specialties in the stock market, Western Union, Wabash, Oregon Navigation, Erie, and West Shore bonds were the weakest. The Northwestern properties, except Canada Pacific, were well sustained. Among the Vanderbilts, Lake Shore and Michigan Central show a decline of two points each.

General business is without change. The advance in wheat is equal to six cents per bushel. This was brought about by a belief that the supplies of foreign wheat, especially Indian, have been overestimated, and by the fact that the short interest had been unduly augmented since the recent heavy decline. The attempt of the shorts to cover was attended with disastrous results to themselves. The prospects of the next crop are unusually good, but there is a growing opinion that all the wheat on hand will be needed at home before next harvest. The dry-goods trade is inactive without any let-down in prices. The closing of some of the Southern cotton mills is the most noticeable event of the week. Among New England manufacturers a proposal to suspend one day in the week during May and June is meeting with some favor, but has not yet been determined upon. The iron trade is dull and unchanged. Steel rails are in moderate demand at \$32 to \$33 per ton. Everything points



to extreme economy on the part of consumers, and nowhere is this more manifest than among railway managers, who are cutting down expenses right and left. The condition of things abroad is very much the same as here. The iron trade in the north of England is in a very unsatisfactory state in consequence of the decline in ship-building, which has been as greatly overdone in the past three years as railway building in the United States.

The account given in the *Tribune* on Friday of the proposed treaty for an industrial union shows that eleven foreign states—Belgium, Brazil, Spain, France, Guatemala, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Salvador, Serbia, and Switzerland—have signed it. The treaty contemplates a universal union for the protection of priority in trade-marks and patents, with an International Bureau, to be placed under the authority of "the superior administration of the Swiss Confederacy." As an inducement to the United States to ratify it a curious clause has been added, making the provisions of the treaty "applicable only within the constitutional powers of the high contracting parties." This seems simply to amount to saying that the treaty, like all other treaties, is entered into subject to the Constitution, and it is hard to see how it can affect the powers of the States or of the Union in any way. The existing law on the subject of trade-marks in this country is entirely different from that relating to patents. Authority to legislate with regard to patents is given expressly to Congress by the Constitution (Const. U. S., art. I., sec. 8). As to trade-marks, there is no question that they are protected by the common law of the various States; but the extent of the authority of Congress on the subject has been confined by the Supreme Court to cases arising in inter-State or foreign commerce—i. e., the "commerce clause" of the Constitution is held to be the only one from which power to legislate in this matter can be derived. This decision, rendered in 1879, swept away the earlier trade-mark laws, and Congress thereupon passed an entirely new act, giving protection to owners of trade-marks "used in commerce with foreign nations or with the Indian tribes," through a system of registration; the act, however, applying only to countries which by treaty or otherwise afford similar privileges.

This act was passed in 1881, and to see how it works it is only necessary to turn to the existing treaty with Brazil, ratified in 1879. This provides that the citizens of each country shall have in the other the same rights that the citizens of either have in their own. We have a treaty of precisely the same description with the German Empire entered into in 1871. Apparently an extension of this system to all foreign countries is not thought to be sufficient by those who have the International Union in charge. Some more definite statement of their reasons than has yet appeared ought to be put forward. At least one part of the scheme, that providing for a central control in Switzerland, seems visionary; the distinction between patents and trade-marks has been treated as of no

consequence; no country of the first rank, except France, has yet given in its adhesion, and most of those which have signed are the countries whose stake in the matter is smallest. The property interests involved are of great magnitude and importance, and the doors of the Senate might well be thrown open during any debate that may be had over it. We doubt if there are a dozen persons in the United States who could tell on reading the treaty draft whether it embodies a practicable scheme or an absurd one.

Mr. Childers's budget for the year 1884 embraces two subjects of interest to the world at large. One is the statement that the national debt has been reduced by eight and a half million pounds during the past year. The other tells us how the Government proposes to deal with the light-gold coinage, which has been an increasing source of vexation for many years. As regards the national debt, Mr. Childers grappled the subject on his accession to office with statesmanlike forecast, declaring the intention of the Government to set aside a definite portion of the proceeds of the revenue each year to its extinguishment, instead of applying the whole to the reduction of taxes. This policy received its first considerable impulse in public opinion some years ago, when the subject of the coal supply was under discussion. Mr. Gladstone at that time made a speech showing the importance of investing a portion of the national income in years of prosperity in sinking the public debt, reinforcing his position by the example of the United States. Mr. Childers is the first Chancellor who has been able to make any marked progress in this direction. The coinage problem is attacked in an entirely original way. It is proposed to reduce the half-sovereign to the character of a subsidiary coin, like the silver coins, by reducing its value ten per cent., and applying the resulting gain, estimated at £1,330,000, to the restoration of full value to the light sovereigns. This will be an interesting experiment.

It is, however, exciting considerable opposition in England. But the opposition appears to be founded upon a misconception of its purport. The outcry raised against it goes upon the assumption that it is a plan for debasing the entire gold coinage, whereas it is really an endeavor to restore to full value the only part of the gold coinage which enters into international trade, and to do this without a resort to taxation. A recent calculation shows that the annual cost of maintaining the sovereigns at full weight—that is, of making good the loss resulting from abrasion—would be about £29,000, and of doing the same for the half-sovereign about £18,000 more. Mr. Childers's plan proposes to make good the sovereign at the expense of the half-sovereign, by reducing the latter to a subsidiary coin like the shilling and the half-crown. The process would be to recoin the half-sovereigns, taking away a certain amount of gold and adding a certain amount of alloy, investing the difference, estimated at £1,330,000, in three per cent. consols, which would yield a sufficient sum to maintain the value of the sovereign from year to year. As the half-sovereign is used only at

home, there is no reason to apprehend any disturbance of any kind from the change. The plan is ingenious and not unscientific, but it will be apt to meet a great deal of prejudice, and may be voted down once or twice before its merits are fully understood.

Mr. Gladstone is evidently firmly opposed to anything like a heroic policy in Egypt, or to any arbitrary assumption of the government by England alone. He is determined to meet the crisis which is now imminent by means of a European concert, and is inviting the coöperation of France in a new scheme for the settlement of the debt, which is again becoming menacing; the deficit in the revenue being tremendous. Most of the bonds are held in France, and the owners, who are a very powerful influence in the French Government and press, are very bitter toward England, and are filling the newspapers with threats and abuse. The French Ministry are probably much more disposed of late to take a firm attitude on the Egyptian question, because it has apparently now been discovered that a Cabinet in France can hold together for more than a year.

One of the great troubles in Egypt just now is the quarrel between Nubar Pasha and Mr. Clifford Lloyd, who has been the leading English administrator there. Nubar Pasha is a very able man, the ablest of all the Egyptian officials, and a strong friend of England, whom it is very desirable to keep in office as Prime Minister, because his resignation means the collapse of the Khedivial Government. But he cannot stand Clifford Lloyd, for the reason well given by the London *Times* correspondent at Cairo:

"Mr. Clifford Lloyd is a man whose social popularity is only equalled by his official unpopularity. He possesses indomitable energy and courage; he is thoroughly in earnest; and he attacks an abuse like a bull, utterly regardless of all obstacles. Political considerations and personal susceptibilities he does not consider to be within his province. He would be invaluable if allowed to rule Egypt as a despot, after the abolition of all the Turkish officials—just as Mehmet Ali was after the massacre of the Mamelukes. But this policy, whatever its advantages, is not consistent with Mr. Gladstone's latest declarations."

So Nubar says that either he or Mr. Lloyd "must go." Now, there is much instruction in this as bearing on the Irish question. Lloyd was a paid magistrate in Ireland during all the late troubles. His brutal and overbearing manners infuriated the Irish with whom he came in contact. He was dogged night and day by assassins, but he was brave as well as insolent, and defied them. He was much complained of, but the Government clung to him steadily as a most valuable man. And a valuable man he would have been, if the plan was to set up a despotic government in Ireland, and rule with the gallows and the bayonet. As a means of restoring order based on conciliation and popular institutions, he was a monstrous absurdity. When the Land Act came into operation and quiet began to return, he was transferred to Egypt, where his bullying ways are again making trouble. He is worth studying as an explanation of the reason why English rule, however just or beneficent, is never popular in any country or with any race.



## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 23, to TUESDAY, April 29, 1884, inclusive.]

## DOMESTIC.

IMPORTANT Republican State Conventions were held on Wednesday. In New York State the meeting at Utica was unusually large. The Edmunds men held the balance of power between the supporters of Blaine and Arthur. About 2 o'clock on Wednesday morning an agreement was reached between the leaders of the Edmunds and Arthur forces, by which a combination was made to control the Convention, the Arthur men accepting the nominees of the Edmunds men for the four delegates-at-large. These were Andrew D. White, Edwin Packard, John I. Gilbert, and Theodore Roosevelt. This was not a compromise, the Arthur men having accepted the Edmunds ticket bodily. The Blaine men were immediately put on the defensive. The four delegates whom they had agreed upon were ex-Governor Cornell, Senator Miller, Messrs. Sloan and Erwin. At noon they changed their programme, hoping to break the Arthur-Edmunds combination, by substituting the names of Roosevelt and Gilbert for Sloan and Erwin. The Edmunds men refused to accept the compromise. The test of strength was made on the vote for temporary Chairman. The Convention was called to order at 12:30, and Mr. Roosevelt, on behalf of the Edmunds-Arthur men, nominated N. C. Boynton for that position. Senator Miller, for the Blaine men, nominated E. L. Pitts. The ballot resulted in the election of Boynton by 251 to 240. The Chair then announced the various committees which the Edmunds men had previously prepared, and a recess was taken.

After the recess Mr. Boynton was made permanent Chairman. The four Edmunds delegates-at-large agreed upon were elected, the vote being as follows: Roosevelt, 472; White, 407; Gilbert, 342; Packard, 256; Miller, 243; Cornell, 228. It took 248 votes to elect. The platform approved protection, advised the immediate suspension of the coinage of the standard silver dollar, the redemption of the trade dollar, and the removal of unjust restrictions upon American shipping interests. Charles Andrews (Rep.) and C. A. Rapallo (Dem.) were renominated for Court of Appeals Judges by acclamation. A State Committee and Presidential Electors were also selected. Senator Miller's plan for a reorganization of the party was referred to a special committee. The general opinion of the result of the Convention is that both Blaine and Arthur have been practically put out of the Presidential race.

In Ohio, Republican district conventions on Wednesday elected twenty-six Blaine delegates, fourteen Sherman delegates, and two unclassified. The State Convention was held on Wednesday and Thursday. J. S. Robinson was nominated for Secretary of State, and Chief Justice W. W. Johnson for Judge of the Supreme Court. The following delegates to the National Convention were chosen: Judge J. B. Foraker, William McKinley, jr., M. A. Hanna, and W. H. West. Their sentiments are not pronounced except that three of them are not for Blaine. They look upon Sherman with favor. The Maryland district delegates stand Blaine 9, Arthur 2, Edmunds 1. Dakota's two delegates are for Blaine.

The Connecticut Republicans on Wednesday nominated delegates-at-large, and district delegates who are uninstructed, but will support General Hawley if his name is proposed. A resolution in his favor was passed by the Convention.

Mahone's party, the Readjusters, held a convention in Richmond on Wednesday, and elected delegates-at-large to the Republican National Convention. The platform gave "emphatic expression to our preference for his (Arthur's) nomination at Chicago," and

changed the name of the Mahone party to Republican. It is said that only one member of the delegation ever voted the Republican ticket. The Dezenclorff "straightout" Republicans will also send twenty-four delegates to Chicago.

The Louisiana State election has resulted in the choice of a Democratic Governor by about 50,000 majority. There are charges of extensive frauds and intimidation.

The United States Senate on Tuesday passed the Pleuro-Pneumonia Bill.

A bill to protect American laborers, reported favorably to the Senate on Friday, from the Committee on Education and Labor, provides that the importation or immigration from any foreign country of any alien under an agreement, expressed or implied, that he shall work for any person or corporation shall be prohibited; that every such agreement shall be null and void. It provides a penalty of \$500 for every violation of these provisions, and that it shall be a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine of \$1,000 and disqualification from holding office under the United States, for any person, while in the official service of the United States, to violate any of the provisions of this act, or to aid and encourage such violation.

The Naval and Post-office appropriation bills were reported back to the House of Representatives on Wednesday, with the recommendation that the Senate amendments be non-concurred in. The House agreed to the Senate amendment to the Naval Bill providing for the armament of the new steel cruisers. Conference committees have been appointed to settle the disagreement on other points.

The House of Representatives on Saturday adopted Mr. Cox's amendment to the Shipping Bill by a vote of 111 to 69, making it lawful for any citizen of the United States to import iron and steel steamships of not less than 4,000 tons free, and entitling such vessels to American registry, provided they are owned exclusively by Americans, and not to be employed in the coastwise trade. The bill was then passed by an almost unanimous vote.

Mr. John J. Knox has tendered to Secretary Folger his resignation as Comptroller of the Currency, to take effect May 1.

In the Criminal Court at Washington, on Tuesday, the case of the United States against ex-Senator William Pitt Kellogg was called. Mr. Kellogg is charged with having received money while United States Senator for services rendered in relation to a contract with the United States, in violation of section 1782, Revised Statutes. This is the Price Star-route case. Mr. Ker opened the case for the Government, summarizing the charges against Kellogg.

The Senate at Albany on Thursday passed the bill for a Broadway underground or arcade railroad. The Governor has signed the prohibitory Oleomargarine Bill. On Friday the Supply Bill was passed by the Senate after an unsuccessful effort to strike out items amounting to \$250,000.

The State Senate went into Committee of the Whole on the Roosevelt bills for New York on Tuesday. The first three taken up were the Park, Sheriff, and one of the Surrogate's bills. Mr. Robb said that the Sub-Committee of Fifty-three were opposed to the Park Bill. This was news to a good many who were prepared to support the entire series, and especially the Park Bill. Mr. Robb said that, while he favored the single-headed Park Commission, he thought this bill was crudely prepared. It was then temporarily laid aside. The Sub-Committee of Fifty-three disapproved of the bill because it placed too much power in the hands of one man. On every side, among those who have made the fight in Albany for these bills, the sudden attack of the Sub-Committee of Fifty-three on the Park Bill was regarded with disapprobation bordering on indignation. Notwithstanding this rebuff the Sheriff Bill was advanced

without amendment. Later, all three of the bills in the first Committee of the Whole—the Park Bill and the Sheriff's and one of the Surrogate's—were reported favorably and ordered to a third reading. An attempt was made to recommit the Park Bill to the Committee on Cities, but it was defeated, only six voting for it. The Senate then went into Committee of the Whole on three other bills of the series, the Register, and two County Clerk bills. These three bills were also reported favorably and ordered to a third reading with no amendment. This places six of the reform bills on the stage of third reading in the Senate without change. The Jail Crowding Bill went the same way as soon as the next Committee of the Whole was formed.

In the Assembly on Tuesday Mr. Roosevelt succeeded in getting his Bureau of Elections Bill ordered to a third reading. It provides for the appointment of two reputable citizens and taxpayers, one from each of the two leading political parties, who shall constitute the Board of Elections in New York City. The resolution for a Prohibition Amendment to the Constitution was then called up for reconsideration, but on its final passage was lost—ayes 63, noes 60. Sixty-five votes were required to pass it.

About 5 o'clock on Sunday afternoon the most destructive tornado ever known in Ohio passed over the southern part of Montgomery and Greene Counties, devastating everything in its course. It appears to have originated near Woodburn. Almost the whole of Jamestown was destroyed and six persons killed. Among the other towns seriously damaged were Alexandersville, Carrollton, Belbrook, and Xenia. The path of the tornado was about one-eighth of a mile wide.

Destructive forest fires prevailed in Michigan on Sunday, accompanied by severe gales. Two million feet of lumber were destroyed at a lumber-yard in Cedar Springs.

Glens Falls, N. Y., was visited by a fire on Monday which destroyed the Opera house, Union Hall, Presbyterian Church, and fifteen stores; loss about \$250,000.

Dr. Willard Parker, the eminent physician, died in this city on Friday at the age of eighty-four. For a period of thirty years, beginning in 1839, he was Professor of Surgery in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in this city. When he resigned this position he accepted the chair of Clinical Surgery in the same institution.

Brevet Major General Opdycke died from an accidental pistol wound in this city on Friday, aged fifty-five. He was at Silesburg, Resaca, Chickamauga, Chattanooga, and Franklin, at which last battle, by a brilliant bayonet charge, he turned the fortunes of the day.

Ex-Gov. Marcus L. Ward, of New Jersey, died on Friday, aged seventy-two. He was a prominent and influential Republican.

## FOREIGN.

Mr. Hugh C. Childers, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, introduced the Budget in the House of Commons on Thursday night. The revenue for 1883 amounted to £87,205,184, and the expenditure to £86,990,000. The income tax produced £453,000 beyond the estimate. The national debt up to the present time has been reduced by £72,680,000. It is now lower than since 1811, while the interest is lower than since 1805. The national debt was reduced during 1883 by eight and a half millions. The estimated expenditure for the current financial year is £85,292,000, against £85,954,000 during the previous year. Mr. Childers said it was difficult to forecast the revenue for 1884. Trade and agriculture were unsatisfactory, but the working classes were pretty comfortably off. The revenue was estimated at £85,550,000, against £71,866,000 last year. After eight months' experience the parcels post had produced only £155,000, against an estimate of £340,000. It was, therefore, proposed to de-



fer the system of sixpenny telegrams until August, 1885. It is proposed to convert the 3 per cent. consols into 2½ per cents.

In the House of Commons on Friday, the Government virtually accepted the decision of the House in regard to the Cattle Bill as expressed by the vote on April 22. They will propose an amendment, however, slightly modifying the bill by allowing the admission of cattle from one part of a country, although the foot and mouth disease is prevailing in another part.

Mr. Gladstone said in the House of Commons on Thursday that the Government fully recognized the obligation they were under for the safety of General Gordon, and would put themselves in a position to render all needful assistance. The final decision of the Government has been postponed until the arrival in London of Sir Evelyn Baring and General Graham.

England has proposed a conference of the Powers which signed the Berlin Treaty, concerning Egyptian financial affairs. Austria has accepted. The statement estimates that Egypt is now in need of a fresh loan of £8,000,000 in order to meet the most pressing requirements upon it, and points out the difficulty of devising a guarantee for such a loan inasmuch as all the resources of Egypt are already pledged. Italy has also agreed to a conference.

The inspired press of Paris insist that France will assert her rights in Egypt and reject the placing of the debt under British guarantee. The *Journal des Débats* again urges a direct understanding between France and England, and asks why the law of liquidation cannot be revised in the same manner that it was created. M. Waddington returned to England on Tuesday with Prime Minister Ferry's response to Earl Granville's Egyptian proposals. He generally approves the scheme of liquidation.

Earl Dufferin, British Ambassador to Turkey, informed the Government on Friday that the Porte insisted that if an Egyptian conference be held at all, its objects should include the settlement of the political as well as the financial question. Official advices from St. Petersburg and Paris showed that the Russian and French Governments were unwilling to discuss Earl Granville's proposals in view of the absence of any statement regarding the term of occupation and the policy of pacification.

Earl Dufferin has also stated that England maintains that Egypt is entitled to conclude commercial conventions with foreign Powers, granting the "most favored nation" treatment under the firman of 1876. The Porte has taken legal advice and decided not to protest against the treaties which Egypt recently concluded with England and Greece.

The British Government has refused to send an expedition to relieve Berber. This caused on Sunday great excitement in the political clubs of London. A non-party coalition is being formed for the purpose of attacking the Government's policy.

A council was held on Wednesday at the British Consulate, in Cairo, attended by Nubar Pasha, the Egyptian Premier, and Gen. Sir Evelyn Wood, the Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian army. It was decided to advise the British Government to send a mixed expedition of British and Egyptian forces to the relief of Berber. That city was then invested by rebels who were also advancing from Korosko, and held the line of communication between Egypt and the Sudan.

The British agent at Berber telegraphed on Monday that the position of the town was desperate, that the troops were leaving and the rebels were entering houses in the outskirts. Every one was starting for Cairo. Despatches on Tuesday said that Hussein Pasha had proclaimed the evacuation of the town. The inhabitants had fled.

King John of Abyssinia has agreed to Admiral Hewitt's proposals to invade the Sudan and relieve the Egyptian garrisons. Osman Digna has sent a message to King John, through friendly sheikhs, in which he threatens to attack Abyssinia unless the Christians of that country become Mussulmans.

A native paper in Alexandria published on Friday a rumor that Khartum had fallen, that General Gordon was a prisoner, and that the natives were signing a petition for an English protectorate of ten years.

It was reported from Cairo on Saturday that Zebehr Pasha was intriguing, and that he was responsible for the recent uprising north of Khartum.

The Paris *Matin* published on Sunday a report of an interview in which it is alleged that "Number One" (Tynan) is somewhere in England. On Monday it was reported in Paris that an emissary of the Clan na Gael had arrived in that city from New York to buy a cruiser provided with torpedoes. Tynan is expected in Paris soon, where he and O'Cafferty will direct the dynamite and dagger campaign. An acting agent of the new party, which aims to unite all patriotic Irishmen, says that the party has already considerable funds with which to begin a campaign with cruisers provided with torpedoes. These vessels will be employed against British men-of-war in various harbors.

The officials of the Paddington Railway station in England have received threats that the station is to be blown up.

The Convocation of the University of Oxford has decided by a vote of 464 to 321 to admit women to a participation in the honor examinations.

London *Truth* says that Archbishop Gibbons, of Baltimore, will be the next American Cardinal.

Sir Michael Costa died of apoplexy at Brighton, England, on Tuesday night, aged seventy-four. He became distinguished early in life as a composer. In 1829 he went to England and entered upon a notable career. In 1846 he took the direction of the Philharmonic Orchestra and of the Italian Opera. He conducted the Birmingham Festival in 1849, the Bradford Festival in 1853, and the Leeds Festival in 1874. For over twenty years he conducted the Handel Festivals. He composed the operas "Malek Adhel" and "Don Carlos," and "Eli," an oratorio.

The wages of shipbuilders on the Clyde, Scotland, were reduced on Tuesday ten per cent. Twelve thousand men are idle.

The time having expired within which the Rajah of Tenom, in Sumatra, was ordered to release the crew of the wrecked British steamer *Nisero*, a British force will be sent against the Rajah to rescue the crew. The expedition is approved by the Government of the Netherlands.

The Anglo-French Commission to regulate the Newfoundland fisheries has terminated its labors in Paris. France renounces the right of fishing in certain bays of the island, but will exercise strict supervision over places where former treaties empower French subjects to fish. Newfoundland's sanction to the agreement is yet to be obtained.

M. Démosthène Ollivier, the French statesman, is dead at the age of eighty-five. In early life he engaged in commercial pursuits. He became known as a radical in politics, and opposed the restoration of the monarchy of July. After the revolution of February Ollivier was elected to the Constituent Assembly. At its opening session he demanded a unanimous declaration in favor of the Republic, and the whole Assembly enthusiastically approved. After the election of December 10 he constantly combated the Government of Louis Napoleon. He was expelled from

France after the Coup d'État, and did not return until 1860.

Maria Taglienti, the famous dancer, died at Marseilles on Thursday. She was born of Italian parents at Stockholm in 1804. Her father was a ballet-master. She made her debut in 1827 at the French Opera, and remained upon the stage till 1847, winning great applause in all the European capitals.

Prince Bismarck is preparing a radical revision of the Constitution of the German Empire. He proposes to amend the election law, making a new classification of electors, and to create a permanent military budget. Besides this he will impose upon the Deputies of the Reichstag an oath of fidelity to the Constitution, the object being to exclude Socialists from membership. If the Reichstag rejects these changes, the German princes will be convoked to frame a new constitution embodying Bismarck's ideas.

The Committee of the German Reichstag to which the bill prolonging the special Anti-Social Law was referred adopted on Tuesday, by a vote of 13 to 7, a motion of Dr. Windthorst to eliminate from the Anti-Social Law the clause which empowers the Government to prohibit Socialist meetings. Herr Von Puttkamer, Prussian Minister of the Interior, declared that unless the bill remained unamended it would surely be rejected.

Count Von Moltke is ill with catarrh of the lungs, and has retired on a long leave of absence to his estates in Silesia.

Two Anarchists at Berlin have confessed the details of a recent plot to blow up the statue of Germania at Niederwald with dynamite in a drain pipe underneath it. Moisture alone prevented an explosion.

Elections for members of the new Spanish Cortes have begun. On Sunday forty-six districts returned 206 Ministerialists to the Chamber of Deputies.

In the Spanish elections the Conservatives used the whole force of the Government organization to secure the return of their candidates. The Liberals in many districts withdrew from the contest. On the meeting of the Cortes the Republicans will protest against this suppression of electoral rights. Of the twenty-four Deputies whom Cuba sends to the Cortes, eighteen are Liberal Conservatives, three Autonomists, two Independents, and one Liberal.

A revolutionary movement appeared on Monday on the Spanish frontier, in the province of Navarre, where insurgents destroyed a customs office. Thirty armed refugees who were interned at Argoulême, in Southern France, entered Navarre under the leadership of a refugee named Mangado. At last accounts they were reported to be again retreating toward the French frontier with Spaniards pursuing them. Another band of insurgents appeared in Catalonia. Efforts are making to capture it.

More than forty lives were lost by a railway accident near Ciudad Real, Spain, on Sunday. A passenger train went through a bridge, one of the supports of which had been cut, it is alleged, by Republicans.

A Madrid despatch on Tuesday said: "The American recognition of the flag of the African International Association, with the evident intention of ignoring Portuguese rights, has caused great irritation in Portugal. Such recognition looks like a piece of very sharp practice, novel in international relations, and hardly contemplated by international law."

The Moscow *Gazette* states that an important Mussulman agitation is in progress in the Caucasus. The Mollahs are preaching the assassination of Christians.

A great fire at Panama, on April 27 and 28, destroyed a large number of wooden buildings, nearly all containing stores of petroleum, gunpowder, etc. The loss was about \$500,000.



## MR. BLAINE'S RAILROAD TRANSACTIONS.

EVERYBODY who knows Mr. William Walter Phelps knows that he is a warm and devoted friend; indeed, he has "a talent for friendship." The fact that a politician is in "trouble" does not freeze the current of his sympathy. It is only a few weeks since he proposed to take even poor Keifer to his bosom. It is not surprising, therefore, that he should, though after three weeks' delay, have come to the rescue of Mr. Blaine, whose ardent supporter and admirer he has always been. But we think we can make it clear that he would have been a wiser and more judicious friend if he had let the matter alone. The natural thing, under the circumstances, for Mr. Phelps to do, was to print the documentary evidence on which Mr. Blaine's character had been assailed. We shall now, in spite of the heavy demands it makes on our space, do it for him, adding such comments as may be necessary. He will not find it pleasant reading, and much of it will apparently be new to him.

The story about Mr. Blaine's connection with the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad had been floating about a good deal in the spring of 1876. So he met it in the House in this fashion, April 25th of that year, admitting that he held bonds of the road:

"As to the question of the propriety involved in a member of Congress holding an investment of this kind, it must be remembered the lands were granted to the State of Arkansas and not to the railroad company, and that the Company derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State, and to the State the Company is amenable and answerable, and not in any sense to Congress. Since I purchased the bonds but one act of Congress has passed in any way touching the subject, and that was merely to rectify a previous mistake in legislation.

"In the seven intervening years since Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds were placed on the market, I know few investments that have not been more affected by the legislation of Congress. But this case does not require to be shielded by any such comparisons or citations; for I repeat that the Little Rock Road derived all that it had from the State of Arkansas, and not from Congress. It was in the discretion of Congress to give or withhold from the State, but it was solely within the discretion of the State to give or withhold from the Little Rock Railroad Company."

This statement was accepted by the public generally as a conclusive answer to the charge against Mr. Blaine. It continued to be so considered till June 7, 1876, when the investigation and the publication of his letters revealed the amazing fact that it was not true; that the franchises and securities of the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad had no value unless the land grant to the State, which was in danger of lapsing, were renewed by act of Congress. Mr. Blaine not only knew this in 1876, but knew it in 1869. In that year, Mr. Warren Fisher took a contract to build the road, with the aid of the land grant, of course. That he was directly interested in getting the act passed which was to provide the money to pay the cost, is highly probable, though not proved. The date on which he made the offer to Mr. Blaine of a share in the enterprise does not appear in the evidence, but it must have been made very

soon after the passage of the bill (April 9) and the making of the contract, as appears by the following letter:

"AUGUSTA, June 29, 1869.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: I thank you for the article from Mr. Lewis. It is good in itself, and will do good. He writes like a man of large intelligence and comprehension. Your offer to admit me to a participation in the new railroad enterprise is in every respect as generous as I could expect or desire. I thank you very sincerely for it, and in this connection I wish to make a suggestion of a somewhat selfish character. It is this: You spoke of Mr. Caldwell's offer to dispose of a share of his interest to me. If he really desires to do so, I wish he would make the proposition definite, so that I could know just what to depend on. Perhaps if he waits till the full development of the enterprise, he may grow reluctant to part with the share; and I do not by this mean any distrust of him. I do not feel that I shall prove a deadhead in the enterprise if I once embark in it. I see various channels in which I know I can be useful.

"Very hastily and sincerely your friend,

"JAMES G. BLAINE.

"Mr. Fisher, India Street, Boston."

He recurs to the subject a few days later:

"AUGUSTA, Me., July 2, 1869.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: You ask me if I am satisfied with the offer you made me of a share in your new railroad enterprise? Of course I am more than satisfied with the terms of the offer; I think it a most liberal proposition. If I hesitate at all, it is from considerations in no way connected with the character of the offer. Your liberal mode of dealing with me in all our business transactions of the past eight years has not passed without my full appreciation. What I wrote you on the 29th was intended to bring Caldwell to a definite proposition. That was all. I go to Boston by the same train that carries this letter, and will call at your office to-morrow at 12 M. If you don't happen to be in, no matter; don't put yourself to any trouble about it. Yours, J. G. B.

"Mr. Fisher, jr."

Fisher was then proposing to assign his contract to Caldwell, but did not actually do so till September following. Mr. Blaine waited all summer for a "definite proposition" from Caldwell, but none came. So he proceeded to refresh his memory and Fisher's, as follows:

"AUGUSTA, Me., Oct. 4, 1869.

"MY DEAR SIR: I spoke to you a short time ago about a point of interest to your railroad company that occurred at the last session of Congress. It was on the last night of the session, when the bill renewing the land grant to the State of Arkansas for the Little Rock Road was reached, by Julian of Indiana, Chairman of the Public Lands Committee, and by right entitled to the floor, attempting to put in the bill as an amendment to the Fremont El Paso scheme—a scheme probably well known to Mr. Caldwell. The House was thin, and the lobby in the Fremont interest had the thing all set up, and Julian's amendment was likely to prevail if brought to a vote. Root and the other members from Arkansas, who were doing their best for their own bill, to which there seemed to be no objection, were in despair, for it was well known that the Senate was hostile to the Fremont scheme, and if the Arkansas bill had gone back to the Senate with Julian's amendment, the whole thing would have gone on the table and slept the sleep of death. In this dilemma Root came to me to know what on earth he could do under the rules, for, he said, it was vital to his constituents that the bill should pass. I told him that Julian's amendment was entirely out of order, because not germane. But he had not sufficient confidence in his knowledge of the rules to make the point, but he said General Logan was op-

posed to the Fremont scheme and would probably make the point. I sent my page to General Logan with the suggestion, and he at once made the point. I could not do otherwise than sustain it, and so the bill was freed from the mischievous amendment moved by Julian, and at once passed without objection. At that time I had never seen Mr. Caldwell, but you can tell him that, without knowing it, I did him a great favor.

"Sincerely yours, JAMES G. BLAINE.

"W. Fisher, jr., esq., No. 24 India St., Boston."

It will be seen from this, that he had been already talking of this "point of interest" to Fisher, but was eager to bring it to Caldwell's notice. So he wrote again on the same day, this time speaking of the bill frankly as "your (Fisher's) bill." At this date, Mr. Phelps evasively says, "the transaction was nearly closed." It may have been, but Mr. Blaine's expectations were not closed:

"AUGUSTA, Me., Oct. 4, 1869.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: Find enclosed contracts of the parties named in my letter of yesterday. The remaining contracts will be completed as rapidly as circumstances will permit. I enclose you a part of the *Congressional Globe* of April 9, containing the point to which I referred at some length in my previous letter of to-day. You will find it of interest to read it over and see what a narrow escape your bill made on that last night of the session. Of course it was my plain duty to make the ruling when the point was once raised. If the Arkansas men had not, however, happened to come to me when at their wits' ends and in despair, the bill would undoubtedly have been lost, or at least postponed for a year. I thought the point would interest both you and Caldwell, though occurring before either of you engaged in the enterprise. I beg you to understand that I thoroughly appreciate the courtesy with which you have treated me in this railroad matter, but your conduct toward me in business matters has always been marked by unbounded liberality in past years, and of course I have naturally come to the conclusion to expect the same of you now. You urge me to make as much as I fairly can out of the arrangement into which we have entered. It is natural that I should do my utmost to this end. I am bothered by only one thing, and that is definite and expressed arrangements with Mr. Caldwell. I am anxious to acquire the interest he has promised me. But I do not get a definite understanding with him as I have with you. I shall be in Boston in a few days, and shall then have an opportunity to talk matters over fully with you. I am disposed to think that whatever I do with Mr. Caldwell must really be done through you. Kind regards to Mrs. Fisher.—Sincerely,

"J. G. BLAINE."

"W. F., jr., esq."

These two letters were undoubtedly due to his anxiety to have that ruling, which he had "the curiosity" to hunt up, weigh in the bargain he was expecting.

Was the interest he had already acquired such "as was sold on the Boston market to all applicants"? Nothing of the kind. In that case Fisher's offer would not have been as "generous" as Mr. Blaine "could expect or desire" (June 29). Nor would it have been a "most liberal proposition" with which he would have been "more than satisfied" (July 2). Nor would it have called forth from him the promise that he would "not be a deadhead in the enterprise" (June 29). If the purchase of the bonds "on the Boston market" had inspired these feelings in "all applicants," Mr. Fisher would have been smothered in gratitude.



Mr. Phelps seems to know little or nothing about this matter, apparently because he has not taken the trouble to read the evidence. Mr. Warren Fisher testified before the Committee that he never "sold to James G. Blaine any bonds of the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad"; that the bonds he gave Mr. Blaine were "for other parties" (p. 89, Evidence taken before the Judiciary Committee), and the sale of them was negotiated through Mr. Blaine. Subsequently Mulligan, his bookkeeper, produced Fisher's account with Mr. Blaine. The nature of Fisher's transactions with Blaine, who, owing to objections by members of the Committee, was described as "the third Party," or as "A," was such that "A sold to parties in Maine, on Fisher's account, \$130,000 of common stock, \$130,000 of preferred stock, and \$130,000 of first-mortgage bonds, and the third party was to get \$130,000 of land-grant bonds, and \$32,500 of first-mortgage bonds for his share in the transaction." For all this Fisher received only \$130,000 in cash. The memorandum book submitted by the witness showed in the margin the amounts payable as commission to Mr. Blaine by Mr. Fisher.

It appears, then, that Mr. Blaine did not tell the truth when he said that the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad Company owed nothing, "in any sense," to Congress and that he did not confine himself to the use of the word "company" (April 25, 1876). Mr. Phelps is now in our columns on this point guilty of something very like a quibble, and is himself the person who inaccurately reports Mr. Blaine's language. Mr. Blaine was not as sly as Mr. Phelps supposes. He said both "road" and "company," and meant road when he said company. Nor did Mr. Blaine tell the truth when he said "he bought the bonds at precisely the same rate as others paid"; nor does Mr. Phelps speak truly when he says that "there is no evidence which suggests" that Mr. Blaine was appointed an agent to sell the bonds of the company. Since Mr. Phelps is an honorable man, this simply shows that he has not read the evidence. He will find a flood of it on pp. 90, 94, 95, 103-4-5 of the "Evidence taken before the Judiciary Committee" of the House in May, 1876. Mr. Blaine was made such agent on "liberal" and even "generous" terms, and sold \$130,000 of the bonds under the arrangement, and afterward took back a number of them—say seventy-five—from the persons to whom he sold them, and who could not or would not bear the loss caused by their depreciation.

What became of these bonds which he took back? We said in our article of April 10 that there was "strong but not conclusive evidence" that they were taken off his hands by the Union Pacific Railroad. Mr. Phelps, who seems to read very carelessly, describes this as a positive "charge," made "without a particle of proof." What he produces as disproof again shows that he has not read the evidence. The witness Atkins, a director of the Union Pacific, testified that the 75 Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds were bought by the Union Pacific Railroad Company for \$64,000, when they were worth only \$37,500

(p. 91). The witness Mulligan testified that Atkins told him his belief that the bonds came from Mr. Blaine to Mr. Thos. A. Scott, and that he got the Union Pacific to take them off his hands at the high rate (p. 95). Atkins denied this, but did not question Mulligan's veracity. He thought it must be a mistake. Mulligan also testified that he (Atkins) made the same statement to Mr. Blaine personally. The witness Fisher was under the impression that the seventy-five were Blaine bonds, and, in a correspondence with Blaine touching a settlement, thought he answered Blaine's complaint about his losses in the Little Rock and Fort Smith transactions by referring to this excellent sale to the Union Pacific, without eliciting any contradiction from Blaine (p. 119). The witness Harrison, a Government director of the Union Pacific, testified that on discovering the seventy-five bonds among the assets of the Company he moved an investigation, but was "taken aside" by Mr. Rollins, the Secretary and Auditor of the Company, and asked to withdraw his motion as it would injure Mr. Blaine; and that he subsequently found it impossible to have the matter inquired into (pp. 18-21). The witness Rollins could not remember who told him the bonds came from Mr. Blaine, and found his memory would not work on this point; but did not know why the Company should have bought the bonds of anybody (pp. 27-28). The witness Thomas A. Scott testified that he bought the bonds of Caldwell (Blaine's friend) at eighty cents on the dollar, and sold them to the Union Pacific Company at the same price he gave, eighteen months later, when they were worth only fifty or sixty cents on the dollar. The reason the Company made this very peculiar investment, by which it paid \$22,750 more than the market value of the securities, was, he said, that it owed him a considerable amount for salaries and other services (pp. 47-50). From whom Caldwell obtained them, and on whose account he made this remarkable sale, did not appear, because Caldwell was in Europe in 1876. The inquiry was interrupted at this point, too, by Mr. Blaine's illness. But the evidence, we repeat, taken in connection with the relations of all the parties, strongly pointed to the sale of the bonds to Mr. Tom Scott, at nearly double the market rate, by Caldwell on Blaine's behalf, and a subsequent and more extraordinary sale of the same bonds to the Union Pacific Railroad Company, the whole being followed by a general bushing up of the matter, and a great failure of memory on the part of all concerned. Mr. Phelps's citation of Mr. Sidney Dillon, E. H. Rollins, and Morton, Bliss & Co. is simply worthless, though probably made without intent to deceive, because he has evidently not read the testimony. Morton, Bliss & Co. were no more likely to know anything about the transaction than the New York Postmaster who delivered their letters. The affectation of indignant surprise with which Mr. Phelps meets this would be most audacious if he were speaking in his own behalf, but is pardonable in an enthusiastic advocate.

Mr. Phelps's answer, in so far as it relates to the Northern Pacific transaction, calls for no fresh comment. He evidently knows

nothing about it. We shall therefore simply reproduce Mr. Blaine's letter, and the passage relating to it in our article of April 10:

"AUGUSTA, Me., November 25, 1870.

"MY DEAR MR. FISHER: A year ago and more I spoke to you about purchasing an interest in the Northern Pacific Railroad for yourself and any you might choose to associate with yourself. The matter passed by without my being able to control it, and nothing more was said about it. Since then the Jay Cooke contract has been perfected, the additional legislation has been obtained, and 230 miles of the road are well-nigh completed and the whole line will be pushed forward rapidly. By a strange revolution of circumstances I am again able to control an interest, and if you desire it you can have it. The whole road is divided into twenty-four shares, of which Jay Cooke & Co. have twelve. The interest I speak of is one-half of one-twenty-fourth, or one-one hundred and ninety-second of the entire franchise, being that proportion of the eighty-one millions of stock that are being divided as the road is built, and a like proportion of the Land Company stock that is formed to take and dispose of the 52,000,000 acres of land covered by their grant as amended by the law of last session. The amount of stock which this 1/192 would have in the end would be about \$425,000, and the number of acres of land it represents is nearly 275,000. The road is being built on the 7.30 bonds, \$25,000 to the mile, which Jay Cooke takes at 90. Instead of mortgaging the land they make a stock company for its ownership, dividing it *pro rata* among the holders of the franchise. The whole thing can be had for \$25,000, which is less than one-third of what some other sales of small interests have gone at. I do not suppose you would care to invest the whole \$25,000. I thought for a small flyer eight or ten of you in Boston might take it—\$2,500 each. For \$2,500 thus invested you would get ultimately \$42,000 stock and the avails of some 27,000 acres of land. Five of you at \$5,000 each would have a splendid thing of it.

"The chance is a very rare one. I can't touch it, but I obey my first and best impulse in offering it to you.

"All such chances as this since Jay Cooke got the road, have been accompanied with the obligation to take a large amount of the bonds at ninety, and hold them not less than three years. I will be in Boston Tuesday noon, and will call upon you. Of course if you don't want it, let it pass. You will receive an immediate issue of stock to a considerable amount, and certificates of land stock also. Of course, in conferring with others, keep my name quiet, mentioning it to no one unless to Mr. Caldwell. I write under the presumption that you have returned, but I have heard nothing.

Yours truly,

"J. G. BLAINE."

This offer was accepted by Fisher, as appears from the following (p. 129):

"Received of Warren Fisher, jr., \$25,000 in trust, in consideration of which I am to deliver to said Fisher properly authenticated certificates of an interest in the North Pacific Railway Company, equivalent to one-eighth part of one of the twenty-four principal shares in which the franchise stock of said company are divided; certificates to be in the name of Elsha Atkins.

"Witness my hand.

"JAMES G. BLAINE."

On this peculiar transaction we remarked, on April 10:

"It appears from acts of Congress relating to the road, none of which are of older date than July 2, 1864, that the authorized stock was \$100,000,000, with a land grant, estimated by the Commissioners of Public Lands at 47,000,000 acres, or 74,423 square miles. The line of the road was 2,000 miles long; and at



the time of Blaine's letter to Fisher, it was, he says, being built on bonds at \$25,000 a mile, which would have made a bonded debt of \$50,000,000. Mr. Blaine, as member of Congress and Speaker of the House, must be taken to have known about the circumstances of the road, and, therefore, there seems no escape from the conclusion that his offer was based on the expectation that he would receive almost as a gift a share in an enterprise dependent for its value on legislation in which he had taken part. Mr. Blaine's defence in the case of this transaction consisted at first of a denial that he had ever had any transaction with the road at all, but he afterwards rested on the fact that he had no pecuniary interest in the transfer, and that it was never actually made; yet, though this might be a defence to suit against him for a conspiracy to defraud purchasers of the stock, it does not affect in any way the nature of the offer. His relations with Warren Fisher were, in 1870, as appeared from the evidence, such that any favor done the latter, or gift presented to him, had a direct pecuniary value."

The letter shows, too, that he had actually been in pursuit of an interest in the road a year previously, had failed to acquire it, and that in the interval additional legislation for the benefit of the Company had taken place.

The charge of having obtained the letters from Mulligan by pledging his word of honor to return them, and then breaking his pledge, Mr. Phelps, we take it for granted, tacitly confesses on his friend's behalf; so that no more need be said about it, except that we are sure that there are enough voters who feel strongly about it to make it certain that no man who has figured in such a transaction shall ever sit in Washington's chair. On the other points discussed by Mr. Phelps he has nothing new to offer, except that he does not agree with the *Nation*. We may add that we believe Mr. Blaine's railroad transactions have no further interest for the public, and we do not mean to return to them. What gave us or anybody any interest in them was the chance of his being nominated for the Presidency—which has now, we believe, passed away.

#### MR. THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S CAREER.

MR. THEODORE ROOSEVELT is still a young man, who has been but a short time in politics, and whose hold on public opinion of course still wants the final and binding stamp which nothing but prolonged trial in a variety of situations ever gives. He may still lose his hold on popular confidence through great mistakes. It may turn out that his moral and intellectual qualities fit him better for strife and struggle than for assured success. We do not ourselves look for any of these things, but we admit that it is open to any critic to expect them without being considered captious or pessimistic. Whether they are true or false is, however, of little consequence for our present purpose. We mention them merely for the purpose of showing that in using him as an illustration we are fully aware that his career is not complete, and has not been subjected to the final tests.

What is it that his success thus far indicates? It indicates, in our opinion, in a very striking way, that the term "politics" is returning to its original meaning—the management of public affairs, as distinguished from the working of the nominating machinery. At the close of the war the South—that is, a distant region of which the people of the North had little knowledge, and whose condition their opinions could do but little to affect either for good or evil—became for a number of years the sole bone of contention in national politics. This, combined with the continued smouldering of the passions of the strife, put all home questions in abeyance, and converted politics into a simple scramble for office; elevating the successful caucus managers into the rank once occupied by statesmen. The old-fashioned type of leader, like Silas Wright, Seward, and Marcy, in this State; Webster and Sumner in Massachusetts, and Clay and Calhoun, and even Davis and Benjamin, at the South—that is, men who obtained prominence and maintained it through the ideas which they held and advocated, and the great lines of public policy with which they were identified—seemed between 1865 and 1880 to have passed completely away. A new kind of politician, of which we may use Mr. Conkling, of this State, as an illustration, came on the stage, and took complete possession of it. Mr. Conkling, for instance, came into public life in his early youth simply as a skilful manager of local caucuses, then of district, and then of State conventions. He knew how to wheedle, and coax, and convince, and terrify the smaller tribe of politicians into doing his will in the various stages of that monster growth of nominating machinery which is the strangest, most puzzling political product of the day, and the one of which the future is hardest to predict. Through these arts, and these only, without even an affectation of interest in great public questions, without any pretence of devotion to ideas, or of concern about legislation or responsibility for it, he rose rapidly under the new régime to be the leader of his party in this State, and he was for some time the most potent influence in the Administration at Washington. For men to whom questions, ideas, measures were the chief concern, who sought to embody in laws long-planned schemes of public improvement, he used at that time hardly to conceal his contempt. They were visionaries, doctrinaires, molly-coddles, pedants. In a convention managed by him, they furnished subjects of ill-concealed amusement to his followers. What he thought upon the great topics of the day—and some of them were among the most serious topics of our time—nobody knew and apparently nobody cared. He made no speeches about them, wrote no articles, and affected no sort of interest in them.

Moreover, he of course furnished a model to the generation of young politicians who came after him. He set the fashion, not only for the young fellows like himself who began to dabble in politics in the country towns, but to the young "gentlemen" in this and other cities who thought they would like to be State legislators, or Senators, or foreign

ministers. Several went up to Albany from New York during his reign, and, if they stuck to their work, rapidly began to be "practical," and sneer at the "reformers," and affect contempt for people who did not know how to "fix" primaries and make "deals," or to "knife" opponents, and who yet presumed to talk politics and complain of the use of the public service as spoils. In fact, indifference to public affairs, and scorn for men who wished to improve anything, and profound respect for successful wirepulling and secret management, became the note of the new school. It was most visible in New York, but it spread to other States.

Conkling fell through the gradual growth of a healthier public sentiment as much as through his own folly. But for the revival of popular interest in public affairs, the state of things which drove him into his final blunder would not have grown up. And he is to-day in his retirement a far more impressive illustration of the effects of the system under which he rose than he ever was while in power. Under the old régime, in which the leaders were men of ideas and policy, a politician who filled so conspicuous a position as he filled in this State for so many years, could not suddenly drop into insignificance and obscurity. He would remain identified in men's minds with great causes, or plans, or measures. His advice would still be sought; his speeches would be remembered and quoted. He would have a large body of followers who would see in his return to public life the best possible expression of their own hopes and aspirations about public affairs. But of Conkling's political greatness literally nothing remains but what he calls "the chalk-mark of captain on his brow." What he thinks or ever thought, says or ever said, about war or peace, currency, trade, foreign affairs, State rights or wrongs, nobody remembers and nobody cares. When he lost his hold of the patronage there was nothing left of him.

Now, the fact that the most successful young politician of our day, Mr. Roosevelt, should have achieved his success in a manner so different—that is, by a complete return to the arts by which all the earlier statesmen rose into power—is certainly one of the most hopeful signs of the times. He has achieved all the distinction he possesses by untiring devotion to questions. He has occupied himself with legislation, embodying the ideas of that portion of the American people who, in the long run, rule the country—the portion which believes in making the world better by effort, and is not satisfied with "harmony" over the offices. He has not been discouraged or daunted by the sneers of "the boys." He has not sought cheap success and popularity with the professionals, by sneering at the kickers and grumblers; and he has resolutely occupied himself, day in and day out, first, last, and all the time, with public business. The result is, that in three or four years he finds himself the most powerful man in a Convention made up largely of these very professionals, and finds that his equipment is, after all, even for the work of management, the best that a



young man in our day can have. The lesson for young men, and especially for young men of leisure, who wish to "go into politics," is very instructive, and they will wisely take a note of it. The times have changed and are changing, and they will do well to change with them.

#### PROHIBITION WITHOUT COMPENSATION.

Now that the Iowa Legislature has passed a law prohibiting the manufacture and sale of all intoxicating liquors, including ale, wine, and beer, and prescribed severe penalties for violation of the act, some interesting questions are raised. One of them is this: How far has a State, in the exercise of its authority to make police regulations, the legal right to interfere with property interests vested under a preëxisting and different law? Can it, for instance (as has been attempted in Iowa), after having encouraged the investment of capital in the manufacture of wine and beer, turn short round, and, without making compensation to those whose property is either wholly destroyed or greatly depreciated in value by the change, declare such manufacture (with the attendant sale of the manufactured product) to be illegal?

The Constitution of the State of Iowa provides:

1 (Sec. 9, Bill of Rights). "No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law."

2 (Sec. 18, Bill of Rights). "Private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation first being made, or secured to be made, to the owner thereof."

3 (Sec. 21, Bill of Rights). "No bill of attainder, or ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligations of contracts, shall ever be passed."

The last two of the foregoing provisions protect vested interests in two ways; first, by forbidding the unjust conversion of private property to public uses, and second, by forbidding absolutely and at all events the infraction of any obligations created by contract. But they do not reach the case which has arisen in Iowa. They do not forbid the State passing, if it choose, a law prohibiting the manufacture and sale of liquors, the practical effect of which is to confiscate a vast amount of private property. For such a law does not seek to convert the property thus taken to public uses, nor does it impair the obligations of any contract under which such property has been held. The first constitutional provision quoted goes further than the last two. It might be supposed to reach the case which has arisen in Iowa. This, however, has been denied by the Iowa Supreme Court in *Santo et al. vs. Iowa* (vol. ii. Iowa Repts., p. 164).

But vested interests are also protected by the Constitution of the United States. That instrument provides:

1 (Sec. 10 Art. 1). "No State shall pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligations of contracts."

2 (5th Amendment). "No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation."

3 (Sec. 1 XIVth Amendment). "No State shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law."

This last provision of the Federal Constitution, it will be observed, is identical with that provision of the Iowa State Constitution which the Supreme Court of Iowa has held not to forbid the passage by that State of a prohibitory liquor law affecting vested property interests. Let us take the sense of several of the present members of the Supreme Court of the United States on the effect of such a constitutional provision. Says Justice Miller, in *Bartemeyer vs. Iowa*, 18 Wall., 129 (a case not decided on the point discussed in the following dicta, however): "The weight of authority is overwhelming that no such immunity has heretofore existed as would prevent State Legislatures from regulating, and even prohibiting, the traffic in intoxicating drinks, with a solitary exception. That exception is the case of a law operating so rigidly on property in existence at the time of its passage, absolutely prohibiting its sale, as to amount to depriving the owner of his property. A single case, that of *Wynchamers vs. The People* (3 Kernan R.), has held that, as to such property, the statute would be void for that reason." Justice Bradley also remarks in the same case: "No one has ever doubted that a Legislature may prohibit the vending of articles deemed injurious to the safety of society, provided it does not interfere with vested rights of property. When such rights stand in the way of the public good, they can be removed by awarding compensation to the owner." And finally, in the same case, Justice Field says: "I have no doubt of the power of the State to regulate the sale of intoxicating liquors, when such regulation does not amount to the destruction of the right of property in them. The right of property in an article involves the power to sell and dispose of such article as well as to use and enjoy it. Any act which declares that the owner shall neither sell it nor dispose of it, nor use and enjoy it, confiscates it; depriving him of his property without due process of law. Against such arbitrary legislation by any State, the Fourteenth Amendment affords protection." It seems, therefore, that, if the arguments of Justices Miller, Bradley, and Field, in *Bartemeyer vs. Iowa*, should, in any case growing out of the recent prohibitory enactment of the Iowa Legislature, prevail with the court of which they are members, an open sale of a glass of wine or beer in existence at the time of such enactment, on or after the Fourth of July next, the day on which prohibition takes effect in Iowa, would not be illegal, but that the statute prohibiting it would be unconstitutional and void.

#### LITERARY CENTRES.

THE death of Mr. T. G. Appleton has attracted attention again to the condition of Boston as a "literary centre," a subject on which the New England newspapers have published within a year or so several articles. In these the fact of what Mr. Wegg would have called the decline and fall-off of that city has been admitted, and various attempts made to explain it. One theory advanced is, that in

a growing country like the United States it cannot be expected that the literary centre, any more than the centre of population, should remain the same; if it was in Boston a generation ago, it may fairly be expected to be found in New York now; hereafter, perhaps, in Chicago, or Kansas City, or Omaha. The difficulty with this explanation is that few candid New Yorkers appear to be ready to claim that this city really is a literary centre, such as Boston may really claim to have been. In fact, one of our best-known critical writers, Mr. R. G. White, continually insists that New York, too, has fallen off from the palmy literary days of the Tontine Coffee house and "Old Tom's." It is not that there are fewer men who follow literature as a profession in New York than there were, for we believe there are more than ever, and just as many of them have been in their different ways as successful as ever their predecessors were. But for some reason they do not make New York a literary centre such as all faithful New Yorkers fondly believe it to have been in the days of Halleck and Bryant and the Knickerbockers. The cohort of lion-hearted youth who are said to be engaged in a genecious rivalry to see which shall supply the Madison Square Theatre with a play that will run without spreading among the spectators a desire to run, do not make New York a dramatic centre in the sense that Paris has been for so many years. The equally gallant band of yearling novelists whose surprising stories of American life go through the pages of the magazines, have not yet made it a centre of fiction. Mr. James, who might almost be claimed as a New York novelist, is denounced by his critics as a European in disguise, while Mr. Howells, whose origin is Western even if his habitat is New England, is, for some reason which we never have been able to make out, suspected of a concealed literary kinship with the author of "Daisy Miller," and at any rate has little or nothing to do with New York. By a literary centre we suppose something like Edinburgh at one time, Boston at another, Paris a generation ago, is meant—a place which has a distinct literary character and standard of its own, which it sets up and by which it judges the past, present, and future. There is little or nothing of this sort in New York, and therefore the idea that the literary centre has simply been transferred from Boston to New York falls to the ground.

Another theory is, that in the future we are not going to have literary centres any more. After all, what does a country like ours want with such centres? It was all very well to start literary centres in the ante-railroad and telegraph times, when New York was as far from Boston as London was from it before there was a cable. But now every literary man makes his own centre, and for the real lover of letters, whether he be in Oshkosh or the social and commercial capital of the continent, he may still do the work that is "in him," as the late Mr. Carlyle would have said, quietly and humbly and faithfully, without seeking earthly reward. This is undoubtedly a very noble and inspiring view of the subject, and has been embodied in a stirring poem of Browning's, adapted to any latitude or period,



celebrating the unselfish life-long devotion of its hero to the interesting problems, if we remember right, presented by the Greek particle *κα*, and the well-known verbs in *α*, which even Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., does not wish to snatch from any one willing to devote time to them as an elective.

This is really an altogether new view of the whole subject. The development of purely individual literary centres is novel, and, of course, explains the decline of corporate or municipal literary centres like Boston. There is, for instance, Joaquin Miller, the poet of the Sierras. His poetry does not belong to any school or fashion, and would be just the same whether it was written in a hall bed-room in New York, a two-pair back in London, or a cave in the Rocky Mountains. It does not resemble the Lake school, nor the Emersonian, nor the verse of Longfellow, and we are confident that if it did, Mr. Miller would at once change it. In the same way there is Walt Whitman, the discoverer of the great truth that there is no difference between virtue and vice, between the pure and the filthy, the beautiful and the ugly, prose and verse, but that these are all different and equally interesting manifestations of the Ego of the poet, the Bard Walt himself. There is the Sweet Singer of Michigan, who has shown that neither rhyme, nor metre, nor sense, is essential to poetry. She lives in Michigan. Michigan is not a literary centre, but she is. Zola is an almost perfect instance of an individual literary centre. He teaches us, not that there is no difference between virtue and vice, or the beautiful and the ugly, the foul and the 'pure, but that the secret of art is "small profits and quick sales," as they say in dry goods, and that the artist makes himself notorious most easily by a careful delineation of the disgusting. Zola, it is true, is a Parisian, but he does not represent Paris as a centre of literature in the way that Balzac or Victor Hugo once did. He represents Zola, and is his own literary centre.

If it is the principle of the individual literary centre which is now beginning to establish itself, it is capable of indefinite extension, limited in fact only by the ingenuity, originality, or eccentricity, or what the old fashioned literary set call the "conscience," of the centres themselves. One may spring up to-morrow in Albany, or Gowanus, or any other unexpected place. The Queen of England has, in the seclusion and entirely unliterary atmosphere of Windsor Castle, and under the inspiration of the society of an entirely uneducated Scotch gillie, written one of the most popular books of the day, in which she shows what use may be made, by any one who knows how, of the flat and uninteresting in literature, and what a mistake it is to imagine that successful authorship is necessarily confined to those who have anything to say. If this view of the future of literature is correct, it shows how foolish it would be for the Bostonians to repine over the decline of Boston as a literary centre. The field hereafter will be world-wide, and each strange new centre will attract the attention of the whole of it until it is diverted by the appearance of some one even more delightful, sur-

prising, and monstrous than his immediate predecessors.

#### THE PLAYWRIGHT'S ART.

THE system of symposia has spread to Belgium. The *Revue Politique* publishes a *causerie* delivered at Brussels by M. Abraham Dreyfus, "Comment se fait une pièce de théâtre?" It is a very bright *causerie*, but it is rendered much brighter by letters from Dumas, Augier, Sardou, Labiche, Legouvé, Doucet, Gondinet, Banville, d'Ennery, Zola, Pailleron. M. Dreyfus had the happy thought of getting these dramatists to write his lecture for him; but he furnished his part in skilful introductions, ingenious transitions, and neat compliments, treating them as a good presiding officer treats the after-dinner speakers at some banquet. But the result of it all must have been that the audience know no more how to compose a good play than before.

M. Augier had protested that he did not know how his plays were composed, and when asked if he did not make his own pieces, replied, "Certainly not, they make themselves." Nevertheless, in his letter he gives two processes, the first the same rule that the old sergeant gave to the conscript for forging cannon: to take a hole and put brass around it; the second just the opposite: to take brass and put a hole through the centre. The hole in cannon is called *l'âme*; the same name may do for a dramatic work. This advice, which to the frivolous might seem trifling, is to M. Dreyfus full of deep meaning. There are plenty of dramatic pieces made of nothing, of emptiness, which is covered with something sounding and brilliant. Such pieces, well put upon the stage, with showy scenery and costly toilettes, have a great success and last for a time; and this, as it is the easiest, is the most usual method. The other, which is the best, is to take some solid material, that is, a strong idea, and give it dramatic life, to put an *âme* into the brass. Such, flatteringly avers M. Dreyfus, is the process by which M. Augier's pieces are constructed. Augier does, by the way, quote one other recipe from a friend—Imbue your last act with sweet tears, and scatter sparkles of wit over the other four—which is useful advice for those who have wit and tears at command; those who have not may reflect upon the recipe, First catch your hare. M. Dumas's letter is longer, but it ends in the same avowal: he does not know how plays are written. One day he asked his father, who said, "It's a very simple matter—the first act clear, the second act short, the whole interesting"; which advice, like the other, is excellent to those who know how to follow it, but the playwright is born, not made, either by others or himself. One might as well ask Romeo how he went to work to love Juliet and to be loved by her.

Sardou writes that every one has his own method, and that the only invariable rule that he can suggest is, that one must know where he wants to go and how to get there. Labiche enters more into detail. When he hasn't an idea, he says, he bites his nails and calls upon Providence. If he has an idea he still calls upon Providence, but with less fervor, because he thinks he can do without its assistance. He then draws up the plan, scene by scene, of the whole piece from beginning to end. Then he goes over it most carefully, inquiring what purpose each scene serves, whether it introduces or develops a character or a situation, whether it helps forward the action. A play must be going all the time. If it lags, the public yawns; if it halts, they hiss. Finally, to make a lively piece, one must have a good digestion. M. La-

biche must have always enjoyed a perfect digestion.

M. Legouvé also is practical. He insists on the distinction between a romance, which one may begin without any idea how it is to come out, and a play, which must have a definite plan—which, therefore, must be begun at the end. Walter Scott conceived his characters and sketched a situation, and then let the story work itself out as it would. Eugène Sue declared that a plan would put fetters on his imagination; if he was to surprise his public, he must be surprised himself. He often got his characters at the end of a part into an inextricable tangle, without the least idea how he was to get them out. George Sand only needed a thought, a phrase, a scene to set her going. But Scribe, the Dumases, Augier, Labiche, Sardou know exactly where they shall land before they set out on their journey. This same belief in the importance of a plan appears in the letters of Sardou and Labiche. Still, Legouvé allows that there are unplanned *chefs-d'œuvre*, and that an author who really had some talent—Molière—owed his *dénouements* in large measure to fortune.

M. Doucet lays the chief stress on following the fashion. To-day, he says, the "Misanthrope" would run a great risk of being rejected by a manager; and if by chance it was played (for the first time) it would have a very moderate success. The treasurer would soon demand that it should be replaced by "L'Ami Fritz." Whereupon, killing two birds with a single stone, M. Dreyfus protests that "L'Ami Fritz" is a very good comedy or idyl, and that M. Doucet's "Les Ennemis de la Maison," produced thirty-four years ago, has not yet been driven from the boards by fashion. M. Gondinet tries the modest vein. When he gets an idea for a play he does not ask whether he can make a *chef-d'œuvre* of it, but only whether the subject will be amusing to treat. A little pleasure now is more to him than a bust even of marble after he is dead. Théodore de Banville's reply is what might be expected of a poet. M. Dreyfus's question, he says, is really double: 1, how to write a play that shall succeed and bring in a good deal of money; and 2, how to compose a really good drama, that shall have some chance of lasting. To the first question he answers, Nobody knows; for if the process were known, all the theatres would make six thousand francs every evening. To the second his reply is, Have genius; there is no other way. In art, talent is nothing, genius is everything. And then he ends with a fling at Scribe; he would not be Théodore de Banville if he did not have his fling at Scribe.

M. de Banville's advice, "Have genius," is not always easy to follow. M. d'Ennery's is not much easier. It is: Take an interesting idea, a subject neither too new nor too old, neither too original nor too commonplace, so as to avoid displeasing both the vulgar and the refined. Zola writes that he is out of the running; he has harnessed himself to a novel ("Les Rougon-Macquart") which will take the rest of his life; he shall hardly get back to the dissipation of theatrical writing before extreme old age. But if he ever does, he shall try to have his plays less artificial in plan than is the modern custom. Molière's comedies are of very simple construction, almost too simple, whereas Scribe's (poor Scribe!) are *articles de Paris*, fearfully and wonderfully made. Finally, M. Pailleron closes the long list by avowing, like Dumas and Augier and Sardou and Banville, that he does not know, that nobody knows—the successful author least of all. And the proof is that he may write a play and be perfectly sure of it, the manager may accept it (though a manager must from



experience be a sceptic and by interest ought to be), the actors will like it when it is read to them (at least will like their own parts, which is all that they listen to), the rehearsals will go off well, the dress rehearsal especially, and yet at the first performance, though the public is now-a-days substantially the same as at a dress rehearsal, the piece may fall flat. Talent, skill, experience are all very well—to some unknown extent and in some unknown proportions they are necessary; but there is something else in it, something demonic, mysterious. After all, M. Pailleron is here simply repeating the testimony of all ages in regard to works of art. And the other letter-writers, practised playwrights in the city where the best plays in the world are made, men who ought to know if any one could know, all substantially agree with him. When women learn to be graceful by studying Peirce's 'Curves and Functions,' when horses are taught to run and leap by showing them Muybridge's photographs, and birds get hints in flying from Marey's 'Aerial Locomotion,' then the art of writing plays may be part of the instruction in the common schools, and the theatre will please the Universalists, for no play will be damned.

#### PLASTER CASTS FOR MUSEUMS.

THE four chief German-speaking capital cities are all known as "art-centres," but only one of the four is rich in original works of classic sculpture. That one is, of course, Munich, ranking sixth among the cities of Europe in this respect, or after London, Athens, Rome, Paris, and Naples. The other three cities of German race, Berlin, Dresden, and Vienna, to make up for their comparative poverty in this respect, and Munich to complete and illustrate its possessions, have organized large museums of reproductions, of which the Berlin collection is by far the richest, the Dresden one the best lighted and best shown, the Vienna one somewhat less extensive than that at Dresden, but growing fast, and, if room is to be had for it in the newly built museum building, or elsewhere, likely to equal Berlin very soon. The Munich collection of plasters is also extensive, but so badly housed in dim and crowded little rooms off the Hofgarten, that it is hard to study. It appears to be considered as an incomplete and unorganized museum, for it is open only twice, or perhaps only once, a week, and although for marks and pennings the custodian will meet you there as often as you like, you have still to find him and make your appointment; so, no more of the Munich Museum von Gypsabgüssen.

The Museum der Gypsabgüsse at Vienna, belongs to the Imperial and Royal Academy of Plastic Art, and is perhaps the only one belonging to an art-school which comes within the compass of our inquiry, as being general in its nature, historical, comparative, and not confined to the developed and elaborated art which is supposed alone to be good for pupils to study. It is especially noticeable for the admirable care and good taste which have presided over it. The 600 pieces which compose it have been carefully chosen from among the 3,000,\* more or less, which are above ground and of importance enough to be reproduced for such a purpose. If the whole ground floor of the Academy building, or if, still better, more spacious and roomy quarters elsewhere could be had for it, a slight annual expenditure—4,000 gulden a year for twenty years—would make it equal to that of Berlin in extent, and perhaps superior in choice

and arrangement. There is an intelligent little catalogue, or rather a guide, for it is not complete, and leaves unmentioned the less important pieces and calls itself only a *Führer*; but it is good and instructive. The Munich pamphlet is a mere numbered list.

The Dresden Royal Museum of Plaster Casts has a catalogue somewhat fuller and more popular in character, with quotations and critical remarks, but having the fault of too great unevenness in its descriptions, devoting a page to one statue and passing the next with a mere mention, not stating even the place where the original was found or the museum in which it is housed. The collection itself numbers 800 pieces (classic art alone). Varied and fine as it is, it is open to the suspicion of being less carefully selected than it should have been: there are too many Roman inferior copies of finer Greek originals, and too many much-restored ornaments of palace galleries. But it is a capital museum for study. The Zwinger Palace affords it an ample series of halls, open and airy for the most part, and abundantly lighted. The *Barokstyl* in which it is built has the good trait of allowing, and in fact demanding, huge openings, and even the ideal museum of the future can hardly be expected to give a larger percentage of glass-surface.

We come now to the capital of the Empire, and it is worth noticing what has been done and what is doing to make of Berlin a metropolis of intelligence. The German imperialists have been laughed at for being in too much of a hurry to claim all sorts of superiorities as the immediate concomitants of military supremacy: one critic having discovered that "Faust" is a greater drama than any of Shakspeare's, and a legion of them being busy in trying to shove German plastic and graphic art into the front rank. No harm in laughing at those vagaries, but it may be better worth our while to observe what has actually been done toward intellectual supremacy; and it is a fact that Berlin is to-day the best place in the world to study classic sculpture. For everything is there. The results of the Olympia excavations are arranged and displayed at full: the Pergamon marbles, with their strange revelations of the later Greek spirit in art, are to be seen nowhere else in Europe; the old museum contains, besides these, a score or two of original antiques, among which are two or three of first-rate importance; and, finally, the new museum displays the finest collection of casts from the antique in the world—1,400 pieces. If to these we add the Olympia collection, we shall have more than 1,600 pieces. If to both we add the sculptured slabs from Pergamon, it will appear that at Berlin the student can see and examine two-thirds of all the most important classical sculpture above ground. Indeed, the pieces that still lack are rather doubles of what is here, than entirely independent and otherwise unrepresented designs. The desirability of having also these replicas, no student will dispute; moreover, every student will have some favorite bas-relief (like fifty at Athens), some Greek marble head (like two at Brescia), some bit of archaism at Constantinople or some out-of-the-way town, or in private hand—all of which may be wanting at Berlin. But practically this combined museum of classic sculpture may be accepted as complete; as sufficient for purposes of study, up to the point where the student, giving up his life to it, starts to visit the shrines themselves.

The authors of the general Guide to the Berlin museums (*Führer durch die Museen*) are very mild-spoken about the collection of casts. Naïvely they say that it is "difficult to get together quickly a collection of original sculptures with limited means," and remind themselves and the

reader that the best (they might have said the good) pieces of ancient sculpture are "in festen Händen"; not for sale. Apologetically, they urge that "even if a part of the full impression of a plastic original must be wanting in a cast of it; even if the cast, by getting dirty, or by imperfect care and preservation, should be injured, yet is the opportunity of closely comparing scattered masterpieces even in their casts most valuable." To which the reader is inclined to answer, in his thought, with an affirmative a degree warmer than the hesitating suggestions of the authors, who, perhaps, are among those who think it strange that conquering Germany should not have all the original masterpieces in the new Imperial capital. As the reader turns down the page of the introduction to the *Führer* we have cited above, or opens the too brief separate catalogue of the casts, he probably enters one of the eleven halls or corridors in which the collection is arranged; and his feeling probably is that if the collection before him is not important and valuable, it must be because of some serious essential defect in plaster casts; it must be because some heavy charge, as of infidelity to their originals, can be made good against them. He finds himself invited, as it were, to select the best hundred pieces of sculpture from the Vatican, the best hundred pieces from the Capitol, the Lateran, and the Villas Albani and Ludovisi, the best hundred and fifty from the British Museum, including all the Parthenon sculptures which are there; and so on throughout Europe, from Madrid to Constantinople. He finds, too, that the rule is to strip the modern additions from the antique originals, that the catalogues so declare, and that accordingly many, if not all, the more injurious restorations are suppressed in the casts. The San Ildefonso group is, indeed, left as it appears in Madrid, although put down as "stark restaurirt." This rule, though the only safe one for a museum of casts, is a little less binding than for originals, because the choice of originals to copy will naturally be made from the less injured antiques. In Berlin, however, it is to be rigidly enforced hereafter. Finally, our visitor finds the kindred sculptures brought together for comparison; for instance, the Hermes of the Belvedere set face to face with its older double, the Athens statue which I have described and praised in these columns as the "Hermes of Andros," where side by side would assuredly be a better arrangement. These comparisons the catalogues urge and aid, brief and temporary as the catalogues are as yet. And our visitor must indeed be convinced that casts are poor things, or he can hardly fail to be aware of a thrill of emotion as he contemplates the prospect before him.

What, then, are the shortcomings of plaster casts? Are these shortcomings truly so important that a collection of casts is essentially inferior to a collection of marbles and bronzes? To answer first the second question, let us see what competent and interested judges think of plaster of Paris as a medium for plastic form. What is the material in which all the important works of modern sculpture are first exhibited? The French school of sculpture is obviously the first now in existence. The annual Salon is that school's chosen place of exhibition and triumph. There are shown not only the portraits, busts, and bits of domestic sentiment, but also the great designs for the exterior decoration of public buildings, the Government commissions, the national monuments. Mr. Bartholdi's "Lion of Belfort" stretched its gigantic length along one end of the "Jardin" in 1878; Mr. Chapu's monument to Berryer stood there in 1877; Mr. Dubois's monument to General Lamoricière was shown there, one statue at a time. No more important works of modern sculpture could be

\* Classical sculpture only is under consideration here. A note affords also the best means of explaining that a long frieze is here taken as not one but many pieces: the Parthenon frieze, e. g., though bearing only the one number, 32, in the Vienna catalogue, consists really of about one hundred slabs, and is so numbered at Berlin and so considered here.



named than these. And in what material is it that the sculptors embody their thoughts when first given to the public, and to the judges who award medals and the marks of all that social and professional success for which sculptors strive? It is plaster of Paris. Nine times out of ten, the first exposition of a work of plastic art is in plaster; or, to leave the annual exhibitions and to pass over the newly-founded triennial Salon, the show of sculpture in the Champ-de-Mars in 1878, when the pick of ten years' work was brought together, and a sculpture gallery was made up such as gave one new ideas and new hopes of modern art, the exhibited works were generally in plaster. And let us hear the archaeologists, the professors, the champions of exactness, and the students of the antique; what did they, in their late favorite and most serious undertaking, get for their efforts? What did Berlin receive for the thousands of marks spent in uncovering Olympia and in securing the precious marbles for Greece? Plaster casts—nothing but plaster casts, photographs, and glory! The long gallery built on the foundations of the never built new cathedral at Berlin, where once were the Cornelius cartoons, is filled now with the Olympia sculptures, in plaster. The pediment sculptures are given twice—once above, in a full size model of the pediments themselves, and once below, on tables, each statue beneath its double in the architectural frame above. On the walls are the metopes, on brackets the more interesting heads, at one end of the gallery the Nike and the Hermes of Praxiteles. Nowhere else can the Olympia finds be judged aright; and these casts are, by the original agreement, all that Germany gets for her money, except some trifling monopoly of photographing for a limited time.

If, then, the Berlin people are satisfied with their plasters, and if modern sculptors stake their reputation upon casts, the common American contempt for them is somehow a mistake. So far as this prejudice is caused by the cheapness of casts, or by the daily appearance of poor copies of poor originals, misleading the uninstructed into buying what they suppose to be works of art, so far it is absurd: one might as reasonably dislike marble because our cemeteries contain such very dreadful things in that material. But to our first question: What are the shortcomings of plaster as a medium for plastic form? The chief one is the opaque, dead whiteness of plaster when new, so inferior in beauty to the lustrous, crystalline, slightly translucent surface of marble. In marble, even the whitest and most uniform, there are slight, untraceable differences in color and in the reflection of light from its surface, which slight variety becomes more marked as the marble is exposed to the air. In the case of bronze, the effect of time is far greater. Now, plaster casts can be colored (of the advisability of that, by and by); but it is evident that however much we may wish for a material with all the advantages of gypsum and a more beautiful surface, this fault is not an essential one. The work of art remains in all respects the same, in the plaster as in the marble. Every quality which the sculptor gave his original is independent of the more or less perfect whiteness, the greater or less brilliancy of surface of the medium. We cannot imagine a sculptor altering his modelling even in the slightest degree to accommodate itself to snow-white plaster, or to marble of any ordinary kind, or any other white material of tenacity and hardness sufficient.

Now, as regards accuracy of reproduction in form, plaster of Paris keeps its place as the best material for common use. The workmen tell us that it swells very slightly just before setting,

and then shrinks again, either exactly to its original volume or a trifle more, according to the quality of the material. The expansion is so slight that the mere tying of a string around the filled mould prevents its bursting; the ultimate shrinkage is so slight that the mould is only just released by the cast. Every one knows how sharp and exact a sealing-wax impression of a seal may be made; but antiquarians generally prefer a plaster to a wax impression of an intaglio inscription or head for purposes of study.

We reach the conclusion, then, that a thoroughly well made plaster cast is the best reproduction of any work of sculpture. It remains, in every case, to be sure that the cast is well made. There are good workmen in the cities where the great museums are, and really extraordinary skill is shown by them in making and putting up casts of the largest and most complicated works of art. The writer has watched, for days together, the process of taking these casts, and with wonder at the skill and readiness displayed. In the case, for instance, of the carved walnut stalls and canopies of Amiens, than which work can hardly be imagined by man more elaborate and more delicate, with its population of statuettes, its delicate relief sculpture, and the elegant pierced canopies high overhead, workmen were busy in the spring of 1882 in making a cast of three of the bays together. This is now put up in the Trocadero museum of comparative sculpture, and wonderful it is as a piece of clever workmanship. Still, in all the casts, even of the best workmen, there is one fault which constantly appears, and a bad one: it is the inaccurate placing of adjacent moulds, so that the surface of one piece of the plaster cast given by one mould is not precisely continuous with the surface of the next piece, after the whole is put together. The smooth rounding of a thigh or a shoulder will then be wholly contradicted by such an interruption. Let the reader look at any cast in a studio or art-school, or in the shop of a maker of casts; the little projecting ridges show where there were joints between the moulds. Now, suppose one of these ridges carefully and gradually scraped away, would the surface be perfectly continuous, the curves unbroken, with no break or step? The casts commonly for sale will not be found to bear this test very well.

The casts we commonly see, those covered all over with the little ridges, as above described, are made from plaster moulds. Casts are also taken from gelatine moulds, and these latter show no seams nor joints, for the gelatine is so pliable that it can be turned almost inside out, and the most elaborate castings withdrawn from it without injury to the delicacy of the mould. This very pliability, however, limits its practical use. The gelatine mould has to be supported behind by a counter-mould of plaster. When the cast is made, the gelatine and cast are lifted together from the plaster backing; the gelatine can then be opened, pulled off, dragged away like a glove; and when a new cast is to be made, the gelatine mould is put back into its plaster holder, and, from its great elasticity, takes its proper form, within as well as without. This method of employment causes its use to be almost confined to bas-reliefs; but statues have been moulded in gelatine, two moulds going to a statue, as if two reliefs without background should be put together, back to back. A cast of the elaborate marble pulpit of Santa Croce, in Florence, is for sale there, and the maker says it was made in more than sixty different moulds, all of gelatine. In such cases there are, of course, seams and ridges; but it is not hard to keep them where they are not very prominent, thanks to the flexibility of the gelatine.

R. STURGIS.

## Correspondence.

### A DEFENCE OF MR. BLAINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On April 10 you made formal charges against James G. Blaine. They are the same which were made eight years ago, and which were, I think, at that time satisfactorily answered. Let others, however, may, like yourself, have forgotten everything except the misstatements, you must permit me to remind you of the facts. I think I may claim some qualifications for the task. I have long had a close personal intimacy with Mr. Blaine, and during many years have had that knowledge and care of his moneyed interests which men absorbed in public affairs are not apt to devote upon friends who have had financial training and experience. I do not see how one man could know another better than I know Mr. Blaine, and he has to-day my full confidence and warm regard. I am myself somewhat known in the city of New York, and think I have some personal rank with you and your readers. Am I claiming too much in claiming that there is not one among you who would regard me as capable of an attempt to mislead the public in any way? With this personal allusion—pardonable, if not demanded under the circumstances—I proceed to consider your charges.

The first charge is really the one upon which all the others hinge. I give it in full and in your own language, only italicising some of your words, in order that my answer may be the clearer. You say:

"In the spring session of Congress in 1860, a bill was before the House of Representatives which sought to renew a land grant to the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad of Arkansas, in which some of Mr. Blaine's friends were interested; that an attempt to defeat it by an amendment was made, and was on the point of being successful, and its promoters were in despair; that at this juncture, Mr. Blaine, being then Speaker of the House, sent a message to General Logan, to make the point of order that the amendment was not germane to the purposes of the bill; that this point of order was accordingly raised and promptly sustained by Mr. Blaine as Speaker, and the bill was in this manner saved; that Mr. Blaine wrote at once to the promoters calling attention to the service he had rendered them, and finally, after some negotiations, secured from them, as a reward for it, his appointment as selling agent of the bonds of the road, on commission, in Maine, and received a number of such bonds as his percentage; that the leading feature of this transaction appeared in two letters of his afterward made public, dated respectively June 29 and October 4, 1860."

Your error is in the facts. Mr. Blaine's friends were not connected with the Fort Smith and Little Rock Road at the time of the passage of this bill. Those to whom you refer as his friends were Caldwell and Fisher. The bill passed in April, 1860. In April, 1869, Mr. Blaine did not know that there was any such man as Caldwell; and Fisher, who was Mr. Blaine's friend, did not know that there was any such enterprise as the Little Rock Railroad in the world. The evidence of these assertions was before Congress, was uncontradicted, and is within your reach. On the 29th of June, nearly eighty days after Congress had adjourned, Mr. Blaine, from his home in Maine, wrote to Fisher, and spoke of Fisher's "offer to admit him to a share in the new railroad enterprise." Fisher had introduced the subject to Mr. Blaine for the first time a week before at the great music festival at Boston. He told him there that Mr. Caldwell, whom Mr. Blaine had not yet seen, had now obtained control of the enterprise and had invited Fisher to join him. At that time Fisher was a sugar refiner of considerable wealth in Boston, had



been a partner of Mr. Blaine's brother in law, and through him had made Mr. Blaine's acquaintance. The offer Mr. Blaine refers to in his letter was Fisher's offer to induce Caldwell, if he could, to let Mr. Blaine have a share in the bed rock of the enterprise. Mr. Fisher failed to do this, and Mr. Blaine never secured any interest in the building of the Fort Smith and Little Rock Railroad.

What interest, then, did Mr. Blaine obtain? An interest in the securities of the company. How? By purchase, on the same terms as they were sold on the Boston market to all applicants; sold to Josiah Bardwell, to Elisha Atkins, and to other reputable merchants. He negotiated for a block of the securities, which were divided, as is usual in such enterprises, into three kinds, first-mortgage bonds, second mortgage bonds, and stock. The price, I think, was three for one. That is, the purchaser got first-mortgage bonds for his money, and an equal amount of second-mortgage or land-grant bonds and of stock thrown in as the basis of possible profit. I may be mistaken as to the price, but I think not. I went myself at this time into several adventures of the kind on that ratio, and have always understood that Senator Grimes and his friends got their interests in the Burlington and Missouri Road, a branch of the Union Pacific, on the same basis of three for one. It was the common ratio in that era of speculation. Mr. Blaine conceived the idea that he might retain the second-mortgage bonds as profit and sell the first-mortgage bonds with the stock as a bonus. He believed the first-mortgage bonds were good, and he disposed of them to his neighbors in that faith and with the determination to shield them from loss in case of disaster. Disaster came. The enterprise, like so many others of the kind, proved a disappointment and the bonds depreciated. Mr. Blaine redeemed them all. In one or two cases only had he given a guarantee. In none other was there any legal obligation, but he recognized a moral claim and he obeyed it to his own pecuniary loss. I cannot but feel that the purchasers of these bonds would have fared worse had they been compelled to look to many of those who have sought to give an odious interpretation to Mr. Blaine's honorable conduct. The arrangement for the purchase of the block of securities was made in June or July. The sales of the first-mortgage bonds out of the block were continued through the months of July, August, and September, 1869. The transaction was nearly closed when, in the letter of October 4, Mr. Blaine wrote to Fisher and told him the parliamentary story of the 9th of April. Mr. Blaine had come across it while looking over the *Congressional Globe*, with a natural curiosity to see what had been his decisions during the first six weeks of his Speakership, and he wrote of it to Fisher as an item in the legislative history of the enterprise into which they had both subsequently entered. It concerned a bill to renew a land grant, made long before the war, to the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad. The bill had passed the Senate without opposition, and there was no one objecting to it in the House, but the advocates of the Memphis, El Paso and Pacific Railway Bill sought to attach their bill to it as an amendment. This El Paso Bill was known at the time as General Fremont's scheme, and had been urged upon Congress before. It was unpopular and was openly opposed by General Logan. Wedded to the Little Rock Bill it would gain strength, but the Little Rock Bill would lose strength, and a just measure, universally approved, would be killed in the effort to pull through with it this objectionable measure which was generally disapproved. Mr. Blaine's letter to Fisher will tell the rest of the story. He wrote: "In this di-

lemma, Roots, the Arkansas member, came to me to know what on earth he could do under the rules, for he said it was vital to his constituents that the bill should pass. I told him that the amendment was entirely out of order because not germane, but he had not sufficient confidence in his knowledge of the rules to make the point. But he said General Logan was opposed to the Fremont scheme and would probably make it. I sent my page to General Logan with the suggestion, and he at once made the point. I could not do otherwise than sustain it, and so the bill was freed from the mischievous amendment and at once passed without objection." Mr. Blaine added these very significant words: "*At that time I had never seen Mr. Caldwell, but you can tell him that without knowing it I did him a great favor.*" I thought the point would interest both you and Mr. Caldwell, though occurring before either of you engaged in the enterprise."

This seems, Mr. Editor, to dispose of your first charge. The bill was a just one and Mr. Blaine's friends had no interest in it when it passed the House. Eighty days after the House adjourned Mr. Blaine asked his friends, who had in the meantime taken hold of the enterprise, and had offered him some interest, to let him in as a partner. They refused. They did, however, sell him a block of securities on the same terms they sold them to others, and it proved an unfortunate purchase, for he sold them out among his friends, believing them valuable, and took them all back when they depreciated in value. The letter of Mr. Blaine, written long after the transaction, is his complete vindication. To give it a semblance of evil you assign a date to it six months before it was actually written. The late Judge Black, after an investigation of the whole subject, declared in his characteristic style that "Mr. Blaine's letter proved that the charge (which you repeat against him) was not only untrue but impossible, and would continue so to prove until the Gregorian Calendar could be turned around and October made to precede April in the stately procession of the year."

Your second charge consists of two parts. The first part is that Mr. Blaine wrongfully asserted that "the Little Rock and Fort Smith Road 'derived its life and value and franchise wholly from the State' (of Arkansas), and not from Congress; whereas the evidence subsequently taken disclosed the fact that the road derived the value on which these bonds were based from the Act of Congress of which Mr. Blaine secured the passage." It will be found that you have inaccurately quoted Mr. Blaine's language, or rather that you put language into his mouth which he never used. What Mr. Blaine did say was, "The railroad company derived its life, value, and franchises from the State of Arkansas." And Mr. Blaine stated the precise truth. What are the facts? More than thirty years ago Congress granted to the States of Missouri and Arkansas a certain quantity of public lands to aid in the construction of certain lines of railway. The franchises which should be granted to the companies that should build the road were expressly left by Congress to the Legislatures of the States. Mr. Blaine spoke therefore with absolute precision of language, as he usually does, when he stated that "the Little Rock Railway Company derived its life, value, and franchises wholly from the State of Arkansas," just as the Illinois Central Railroad Company derives its life, value, and franchises from the State of Illinois, though enriched by a land grant from the United States, just as the Little Rock Road was.

The second part of your second charge is, that Mr. Blaine did not speak truthfully when he

asserted that he bought the bonds "at precisely the same rate as others paid." There is no evidence anywhere to sustain this accusation. I have already said any person could negotiate for them on the one-for-three basis just as Mr. Blaine did, and many availed themselves of the opportunity. The price paid was not in the least affected by the fact that Mr. Blaine had already arranged to sell the securities at a higher price than he paid for them. He did this with the determination, honorably maintained, that he would make good any loss which might accrue to the purchasers. These sales did not change the price paid to Fisher, and the proof that they did not is found in the fact that Mr. Blaine paid it to him in full. You speak in this connection of Mr. Blaine's being appointed an agent to sell the bonds of the company. No such appointment was ever made and no evidence suggests it. Mr. Blaine negotiated for his securities at a given price which was paid in full to Mr. Fisher.

Your third formal charge relates to an alleged connection of Mr. Blaine with a share in the Northern Pacific enterprise. You charge this in the face of the fact that in Mr. Blaine's letter, in which you find the subject referred to, was his distinct asseveration that he could not himself touch the share. Have you seen any evidence that he did? I have not. The Northern Pacific Railroad Company has been organized and reorganized, and recently reorganized a second time. Its records of ownership and interest have passed under the official inspection of at least a hundred men, many of whom are political enemies and some of whom are to my knowledge personal enemies of Mr. Blaine, and there has never been a suggestion or hint from any of these that in any form whatever Mr. Blaine had the remotest interest in the Northern Pacific Company. If one of your associates has such evidence, it is right that he should produce it.

Your fourth charge is, that after Mr. Blaine got possession of the so-called Mulligan letters, "he subsequently read such of them as he pleased to the House in aid of his vindication." The answer is that Mulligan's memorandum of the letters, in which he had numbered and indexed each one of them, was produced, and number and index corresponded exactly with the letters read. This was fully demonstrated on the floor of the House, and is a part of its records.

You repeat the charge that Mr. Blaine received a certain sum from the Union Pacific Railroad Company for seventy-five bonds of the Little Rock Road. You say this without a particle of proof. You say it against the sworn denial of Thomas A. Scott, who was the party alleged to have made the negotiation. You say it against the written denial of Mr. Sidney Dillon, President of the Company; against the written denial of E. H. Rollins, Treasurer of the Company; against the written denial of Morten, Bliss & Company, through whose banking house the transaction was alleged to have been made. Against this mountain of direct and positive testimony from every one who could by any possibility have personal knowledge of the alleged transaction, you oppose nothing but hearsay and suspicion as the ground of a serious charge against the character of a man long eminent in public life. The courtesy which admits me to your columns prevents my saying what I think of your recklessness in this matter.

Your fifth charge arraigns Mr. Blaine's policy as an executive officer, and your last charge is that of his packing conventions in his own favor. I do not desire to dwell upon either. This is not the place to review his foreign policy to which you refer, and I am content to remark



that however much some Eastern journals may criticize, it is popular with a large majority of the American people. It is simply an American policy, looking to the extension of our commerce among the nations of this continent, and steadily refraining from European complications of every character.

The charge of packing conventions needs no answer. This is the third Presidential campaign in which Mr. Blaine has been undeniably the choice of a large proportion of the Republican party. In each of them he has had the active opposition of the National Administration, with the use of its patronage against him. Mr. Blaine has control of no patronage. He has no Machine. Machine and patronage have been persistently against him. Whatever prominence he has enjoyed has been conferred by the people. He has no means, not open to every citizen, of influencing public opinion. No campaign in his favor originated elsewhere than among the people. He has never sought office. He never held a position to which he was not nominated by the unanimous voice of his party. He has not sought the Presidency. Circumstances made him a candidate in 1876, almost before he was aware of it. In 1880 he did not wish to enter the canvass. I was one of a small party of intimate friends who, in a long conference in February, 1880, persuaded him that it was his duty. He has done nothing to make himself a candidate this year. He has asked no man's support. He has written no letters, held no conversation, taken no steps looking to his candidacy. He has never said to his most intimate friends that he expected or desired the nomination.

If, upon a review of the whole case, you should charge that it would have been better and wiser for Mr. Blaine to have refrained from making any investment in a railroad that had directly or indirectly received aid from the legislation of Congress, I should be ready to agree with you, not because the thing was necessarily wrong in itself, but because it is easy for such matters to be so represented as to appear wrong. But why should Mr. Blaine be selected for special reprobation and criticism when so many other Senators and Representatives have been similarly situated? I know of my own knowledge that Governor Morgan, Mr. Samuel Hooper, Senator Grimes, and many of my friends while in Congress acquired and held interests in such enterprises; and neither you nor I nor the people suspected the transaction to be wrong, or that it gave them an advantage over other investors. Why entertain and publish that suspicion against Mr. Blaine alone? When I sat as a delegate-at-large in the last National Convention, Senator Edmunds and Senator Windom were both candidates for the Presidency, and I should gladly have supported either. Senator Edmunds was understood to have a block of Burlington and Missouri securities, and Senator Windom had not only a block in the securities of the Northern Pacific Company, but was one of its directors. Yet you find no fault with these gentlemen. Nor would you and I differ in giving the highest rank to Senator Grimes; but both he and Senator Edmunds acquired their interests in the Burlington and Missouri Road when they were in the Senate. They both supported the bill to restore the land grant to their road. It was passed on the same day with the Little Rock Bill. Both measures were just, and both were passed in the House and Senate without a dissenting vote. Why must we suspect that Mr. Blaine had a secret and corrupt motive, and that other members and Senators had none?

Let me add a circumstance which seems to me to be not only significant but conclusive of Mr.

Blaine's conscious innocence in this Fort Smith transaction. He voluntarily made himself a party of record in a suit against the Fort Smith and Little Rock Railway Company, in the United States Circuit Court, which involved the nature and sources of his ownership in the property. This was before he was named for the Presidency. If he had obtained this ownership dishonorably would he have courted this publicity?

I have thus ventured, Mr. Editor, to make answer to the charges you have brought against Mr. Blaine. There are other charges equally baseless which I have read, but in other papers, so that I may not claim your space to deny or answer them. I give two examples. Mr. Blaine is represented as the possessor of millions, while I personally know that he was never the possessor of the half of one million. He was represented as living for the past ten years in palatial grandeur in Washington. He sold that palatial mansion, with all its furniture, to Mr. Travers for \$24,500, and got all that it was worth. But you are responsible only for such charges as you have made, and I have, therefore, made answer to them authoritatively over my own name, and I challenge denial of any substantial fact I have stated. Your attacks are not on Mr. Blaine alone; they are on his friends as well, and these are certainly a larger and more devoted body of supporters than can be claimed by any other man in public life. It seems to me, as I recall those in every station who are proud to be numbered among them, that I recognize many of the ablest, truest, and most honorable of our countrymen.

WM. WALTER PHELPS.

WASHINGTON, April 23, 1884.

#### THE END OF EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg to enter an earnest protest against the doctrine of your correspondent "A." that education is to be directed solely or chiefly to preparation for the special pursuit to which the scholar will afterwards devote himself. This certainly seems to be implied in his dictum that "increasing specialization of employment must necessarily lead to divergence of preparation," as compared with his last paragraph, in which he gives his opinion "that the adaptation to individual choice will gradually extend until it reaches the very beginning and embraces all subjects." When it is remembered that the vast majority of schoolboys and a large proportion of college students will devote their lives to no other pursuit than that of money, the absurdity of the principle becomes palpable, and even in the case of those who will follow some calling for which special training is requisite, its inadequacy is scarcely less apparent. Before a man can prepare himself for his calling he must have acquired mental grasp, readiness, and versatility. The first object of education is to give him these; the special training of the professional or scientific school is an after consideration, both as to time and importance. I submit, sir, that, whatever may hereafter be invented, no instrument has yet been found by which this object can be so well gained as by the study of language, and especially of Latin and Greek. The time which can be devoted to study must necessarily determine whether one or both of these languages can be profitably taught; but I challenge the votaries of science to show any practicable method by which a boy can be taught, while learning chemistry or biology, to think, to reason, to apply principles to facts, as he must do if he is studying Latin or Greek. Every sentence which he translates is new ground for original investigation; in each he must exercise his ingenuity, his judgment, his taste. I leave purposely out

of the account the nobler culture derived from a knowledge of the immortal masterpieces of antiquity, and insist only on the value of the elementary training in the principles of syntax. Moreover, the critical study of the structure of a sentence is nothing but a study of the forms in which all thought must necessarily clothe itself, and leads inevitably to greater precision in thinking. And this training may, under rational instruction, begin at the very outset. That method which insisted on the memorizing of the Latin grammar before any practical application of its rules was begun, has happily passed away. I can instance a class of boys, not above the average in intelligence, who began Latin on the first of last month, and of whom one had never heard of such terms as *noun* and *verb*. These boys have not yet learned all the forms of inflection, but they can turn a compound sentence into indirect discourse with correctness in both moods and tenses. Such a process involves the exercise of the mind, and this exercise must be continuous so long as they pursue the study of Latin. To this will be added, as they advance, the discrimination of shades of thought and fluency of expression, as they are compelled to enlarge their English vocabulary in searching for the best words to render the meaning of Caesar, Cicero, or Vergil.

Here I might ask "A" if such a training is not the best preparation for any conceivable pursuit; but I prefer to ask whether these studies will not, more than any other, enlarge the mind, sharpen its perceptions, strengthen its grasp, quicken its movement, ease its expression, and give at least some ground for the hope that those who have been thus trained will always have interests beyond their specialty, whether that shall be language, or science, or money-making.

J. H. L.

CANANDAIGUA, N. Y., April 19, 1884.

#### ARISTOTLE AND BACON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Church's *Bacon* (No. 982, p. 370) occur these words: "Aristotle lived about 2,500 years ago, and his fame is undiminished. Bacon's fame has endured for 250 years, of late with sensible diminution."

It may be that something of the difference in permanence of work here suggested is due to the comparative narrowness of the English philosopher's vision. With small competence to judge such a matter, I have the impression that Bacon failed somewhat in supposing his new instrument to be an *only* instrument; that he had, as compared with Aristotle, a less catholic comprehension of the immense inclusiveness as well as the unity of science, upon any definition of science true enough to stand the wear and tear of many centuries.

However this may be, it will hardly be doubted that Dean Church speaks more truly of Bacon than of Aristotle when he says: "Bacon, like Aristotle, belonged to an age of adventure, which went to sea little knowing whither it went, and ill-furnished with knowledge and instruments. He entered with a vast and vague scheme of discovery on those unknown seas. . . ." I should suppose that Aristotle had a distinct advantage over Bacon in the less vagueness of his work.

I write this note, however, only because I hope some of your readers may be glad, after reading the review in question, to be referred to an article on "The Organization of Scientific Work," in the first *Heft* of vol. liii. of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, by Hermann Usener, in which the very great definiteness of Aristotle's work is shown in a strong light. In many ways the article is notable; but the matter to which I



wish to call attention here is the clear way in which the reader is made to see Aristotle at the head of a great system of organized research—research which busied many men of remarkable powers; men who worked by definite methods in search of definite results, upon many lines; lines which not only were divergent, but convergent also.—Yours respectfully,

JOHN H. WHEELER.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, ALBEMARLE COUNTY, VA.,  
April 25, 1884.

#### MARYLAND SUFFRAGE IN 1675.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Bancroft, in his 'History of the United States' (Rev. Ed. I. 439), speaking of the qualifications of voters in Maryland in 1675, after stating that the suffrage was restricted to freemen having fifty acres real estate, or forty pounds' worth of personal, adds: "No difference was made with respect to color"; thus implying that negroes did vote or might have voted in Maryland.

Putting aside the fact that no negro, whatever his personal status, would have been considered a political "freeman" in Maryland, the explanation of the omission is found in the other fact that all negroes in the Province were slaves for life.—I am, sir, etc., W. H. B.

#### GRAPE GROWERS AND TEMPERANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue I notice my friend Bush from St. Louis wishes his "paper stopped" because you make common cause with the "temperance fanatics." I write to say simply that I, as a new subscriber, will take his place, and I wish to encourage and commend you in every way for the stand you take in favor of temperance and other reforms.

Please do not think that all the grape growers favor the wine business. I myself, together with a multitude of my brethren in the profession, are emphatically opposed to putting so fine a fruit as the grape is, to so ignoble a use as assisting in making tipplers and drunkards.—Yours, T. S. HUBBARD.

FREDONIA, N. Y., April 25, 1884.

### Notes.

It is announced that the completion of the supplement to the 'American Catalogue' will not be delayed by Mr. Leyboldt's death, and that the work will appear in the autumn, carrying the entry of titles from July 1, 1876, to July 1, 1884. The proceeds will go directly to the estate of Mr. Leyboldt, for the benefit of his wife and children. Subscriptions, at ten dollars, may be sent to Mr. R. R. Bowker, 31 Park Row. The sale of the few remaining copies of the 'American Catalogue' itself is desirable on the same account. The worth of both is enhanced by the intention to continue the supplements at five-yearly intervals. We have more than once insisted on the great utility of these lists for all book-buyers.

Mr. S. S. Rider, Providence, concludes his first chatty volume of *Book Notes* with an index to the local historical matters touched upon; and states that when the first series of his Rhode Island Historical Tracts is completed, as it shortly will be, by the twentieth number, a second series will be begun if sufficient support is promised.

A. S. Barnes & Co. have in press 'A Handy Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' based upon Grein's 'Sprachschatz,' and edited by Profs. James A. Harrison, of Washington and Lee University, and W. M. Baskervill, Ph. D. (Lips.), of Vanderbilt

University. The former will also contribute a List of Irregular Verbs, and the latter an Outline of Anglo-Saxon Grammar. The Grammar will be enlarged for separate publication by the same house a little later in the season.

J. R. Osgood & Co.'s approaching issues embrace 'Mingo, and Other Sketches in Black and White,' by Joel Chandler Harris; 'Henry Irving's Impressions of America,' as recorded through the interviewing and editorial agency of Mr. Joseph Hatton; and the 'Battle of Stone's River,' by Alexander F. Stevenson.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready the first contribution to their "American Men of Letter Series" which fixes the generic significance of the term "men," namely, 'Margaret Fuller Ossoli,' by T. W. Higginson; 'Captains of Industry,' by James Parton; 'The American Horsewoman,' by Mrs. Elizabeth Karr; 'Government Revenue, especially the American System,' by Ellis H. Roberts; and a new translation of the 'Odyssey,' by Prof. George H. Palmer, which will be awaited with great interest. The same firm will also shortly bring out a new enlarged and revised edition of Warren Colburn's 'Intellectual Arithmetic,' with a portrait of the author and a sketch of his life.

Thomas Whittaker will soon have ready Sir John Lubbock's 'Chapters in Popular Natural History,' in a cheap edition, with ninety illustrations, and Ellice Hopkins's 'Work among Workmen.'

'The Libraries of Boston,' public and private, to the number of more than a hundred, will form a work to be issued by subscription by Cupples, Upham & Co.

'Rapid Ramblings in Europe,' by Col. W. C. Falkner, and 'Vacation Cruisings in Chesapeake and Delaware Bays,' by Prof. J. T. Rothrock, are announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co.

This month appears, from the press of J. C. Hinrichs, Leipzig (New York: Westermann), vol. iii., Prolegomena, Part I., of Tischendorf's *editio octava critica major* of the Greek Testament. This has been prepared by Dr. Caspar René Gregory, with the aid of the late Dr. Ezra Abbott, and will contain an account of Tischendorf's life and writings, with much grammatical and critical discussion.

The Rev. William C. Winslow, No. 429 Beacon Street, Boston, will furnish on application, to those interested, a circular concerning the explorations now going on at Zoan, in the Delta of Egypt, under the supervision of Mr. W. Flinders Petrie.

The sixteenth of the "Bibliographical Contributions" of the Library of Harvard University is certainly one of the most useful. It is a classified index to the maps contained in *Ptermann's Geographische Mittheilungen, 1855-1881*, by Richard Bliss, of the Northern Transcontinental Survey. The list numbers 1,340. Mr. Bliss has been at the pains to calculate the scale where this was not given originally. He has added a reference list of writers, travellers, explorers, and cartographers, and a list of expeditions and surveys. Handy would have been also a list of the ships which have given their names to the several expeditions.

Arrangements have been completed for holding, at the University Library, Berkeley, Cal., during the last week of May—commencement week—a loan exhibition of books illustrative of the history and progress of printing and the related arts. To this exhibition the private collectors and public libraries of San Francisco, Oakland, and vicinity have generously promised contributions. There will be represented specimens of block books, early wood engravings, and playing-cards, manuscripts (the predecessors of the typographic art), many examples of printed work of the fifteenth century, and rare and noteworthy edi-

tions of succeeding centuries. Special attention will be given to showing the progress of book illustration in its various forms. Another department of the exhibition will be devoted to samples of the work of famous binders. Specimens of California printing and binding will be exhibited. The exhibition, it is hoped, will prove of great interest to the book lovers and collectors of the Pacific Coast, and be an occasion for the display of many a rare work, the presence of which on that side of the continent might not have been suspected.

The fifteenth of the Q. P. Indexes is the 'Q. P. Index Annual for 1883,' and the already-large list of periodicals unlocked by it has been extended by the addition of *Nord und Süd*, *Westermann's Monatshefte*, and of great utility) United States Consular and Education reports. Our copy also includes the index to Mr. Griswold's *Monograph*, and *Corrigenda* to his 'Index to Essays,' the only index whose support has been inadequate to its continuance. The German contingent in his list for annual indexing leads Mr. Griswold to refer from the English term to the German, as in "Asia Minor (2. *klein Asien*)," "Astronomy (2. *Himmel*)," etc. Occasionally even the page is indicated in parenthesis. Finally, the interpretation of the figures and abbreviations used is repeated at the foot of every page. Interesting intelligence is the refusal of the *Living Age* to send a free copy for indexing, and the expiration of the *International Review*, after its checkered career, in May-June, 1883.

'Day's Collaçon,' an encyclopaedia of pro-e quotations (New York: International Printing and Publishing Office), is a ponderous volume of more than 1,200 pages, whose value for a certain class of minds will probably be shown in an extensive sale. Another class will admire the compiler's industry, but shun the result, from which discrimination is wanting. Care has not always been taken to quote the sayings accurately, and their dislocation from the context has sometimes a curious effect, as in Webster's "Suicide is confession," which is nonsense when standing by itself. The index is biographical as well as topical.

Mr. Egmont Hake's 'Story of Chinese Gordon' has been reprinted by R. Worthington with additions, which bring the narrative down to date, by Hugh Craig, M.A. The new portion deals with the tangled events of the past four months as well as could be expected; but whether Gordon emerges or not from his latest peril, it is certain that the present passage in his extraordinary career will require a full volume for itself. Mr. Archibald Forbes has compiled from the foregoing and from Wilson's 'Ever Victorious Army' and Hill's 'Colonel Gordon in Central Africa,' a small volume called 'Chinese Gordon' (Geo. Routledge & Sons), of which the chief merit is a striking photographic portrait of Gordon, from a negative made in Khartum. The pale blue eye, which is so much of the man, was hardly definable by the camera. The woodcut after this print, which serves as a frontispiece to an edition of the same work published by S. W. Green's Son, fails to catch this feature.

Roberts Bros., Boston, have brought out a cheap edition, two volumes in one, with separate pagination, of Lord Ronald Gower's 'My Reminiscences,' which we reviewed at length last August.

Cassell & Co. send us Koehler's excellent 'Art Directory' for the current year, improved and enlarged to a considerable book. It contains very complete information on every subject connected with the arts in this country—exhibitions, periodicals, academies, art schools, local institutions, etc.—with a large number of pro-



cess illustrations of works exhibited during the past year, as well as the very convenient artists' and art-teachers' directory.

'The St. Anne of Leonardo da Vinci, by Alfred Marks,' is the title of a brochure reprinted from the Transactions of the Royal Society of Literature, being a study on the cartoon of the Royal Academy of London and its relation to the cartoon of the same name recorded by Vasari. It is one of those patient and thorough monographs that result from the application of the modern scientific spirit to art matters, which is changing the whole character of the archaeology of art. It is illustrated by twenty-five reduced illustrations of the pictures and cartoons which come into the inquiry.

An important work upon the archaeology of Syracuse, undertaken about five years ago, under the direction of the Italian Minister of Public Instruction, has lately been published at Palermo in a volume of 417 pages 4to, with an atlas of plates. The authors, Professors F. Saverio, Cavallari, and Adolph Holm, are well known among archaeologists. The former has written upon the "Topografia di Siracusa," and the latter, who is Professor of Ancient and Modern History at the University of Palermo, is the author of many important works upon the history and antiquities of Sicily, including a history of Sicily, in two volumes.

An antiquarian in France has found a document, dated 1644, indicating a curious survival of Pagan superstition. It is an order from some ecclesiastical authority that a hole in the lower part of the altar in the Church Saint Jean du Marillais be closed, in order to stop the practice of the peasants of putting the heads of their children into it for some fancied benefit. He connects this custom with a superstition relative to dolmens with holes.

Mr. Samuel Garman, of the Cambridge Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, has in preparation an important work on the trout and salmon of New England. An abstract of his conclusions was prepared for the April meeting of the Fish and Game League, and may be found in the Boston Transcript of April 15. Mr. Garman finds two varieties of salmon—*Salmo salar* and *Salmo sebago*—the latter the land-locked variety; and two of lake trout and three of brook trout, in whose identification the number of rows of scales plays a prominent part.

A series of papers on Cambridge (Eng.) printers is begun in the April Bibliographer (J. W. Bouton). The first printer was John Sibereh, 1521-22.

A print catalogue before us offers the "Old Clarkson House, L. I. (in this house the British officers quartered themselves)." No wonder that the lot containing this consists of "12 pieces."

—A correspondent writes us from Kioto, apropos of a recent article in the Nation:

"I am rejoiced to see you giving attention to the important subject of dusting. Let me call your attention, however, to the fact that the feather duster has long been used in Japan. Also, you will be interested to hear of the Japanese way of dusting, which is to dust first and sweep afterward. In this way whatever dust has been brushed off the objects dusted, is returned with interest."

—A list of the birds inhabiting and frequenting the District of Columbia is a very proper publication for the United States National Museum, whose twenty-sixth Bulletin is accordingly an 'Avifauna Columbiana.' It is called a second edition, and indeed a sentimental interest attaches to it as the return of two professors in the National Medical College, Dr. Elliott Coues and Dr. D. Webster Prentiss, to a boyish task creditably achieved a quarter of a century ago. They find little to alter—only one species to discard; and not very much to add,

bringing the total number up from 225 in 1862 to 248 at the present time. For the rest, the text has been wholly rewritten, and any one familiar with Dr. Coues's style will recognize his hand in the pleasant discourse which is not wanting even in the technical portions of the Bulletin. His are not only the remarkably restrained observations on the European Sparrow as the expeller of our native singing birds (and, by the way, he admits that that "melodious creature," the Song Sparrow, is one of the birds which hold their own the best against the foreigner), but his must be the picturesque description of the motley "meet" of the Rail shooters at the opening of the season, and the feeling account of the joys, perils, and humors of those who take to the sport in skiffs. He even gives details as to the build of these craft, and the price of one made of galvanized iron. He tells you how the wounded turkey buzzard plays 'possum, and again graphically relates the damming up of the northern migration in May, 1882, which flooded the District with a "tidal wave" of discouraged birds in numbers and beautiful variety quite unprecedented. Another damming, that of the Potomac at Anacostan Island, is mentioned for its curious ornithological and sub-pestilential effects, in the topographical introduction, the reader of which will (with the aid of four excellent maps) find himself well informed as to the environs of the capital. In short, one not an ornithologist will be surprised at the interest this scientific pamphlet proves to have for him, to say nothing of the abundant illustrations. For some time, we suppose, it will have no successor from Dr. Coues's pen, for during the present month he is to sail for Europe, in compliance at last with the formal request of Darwin, Huxley, Flower, Wallace, Mivart, Gould, Selater, Newton—names no longer wholly of the living—made five years ago, that he would visit the Old World in order to prepare a complete Bibliography of Ornithology, of which we have already had from him such brilliant essays.

—In the last two numbers of the *Magazin für die Literatur*, we find a review of Dr. Busch's last production, under the title, "Bismarck vom Lakaen Standpunkt," which those who look in vain in German criticism for literary cleverness and sharpness will find an agreeable surprise. This title is an allusion to the story that, after several chapters had appeared in the *Gartenlaube*, further contributions were declined; and upon Busch's rather indignantly asking why, he was told that it was because "he wrote history from the standpoint of a lackey"—hardly, one would think, a cause for objection to a magazine editor, however discreditable it might be to the author. The book (of which a translation is announced) has already been described briefly in these columns, and our object is to call attention to the criticism rather than to its subject. Busch is first exposed with respect to the nature of his advertising methods, being accused of writing the favorable notices himself. Then the present work is analyzed so as to show that it consists partly of scourgings of the kettle from which 'Graf Bismarck und Seine Leute' was served, but chiefly of discussions, for the greater part irrelevant, borrowed from other authors, without credit. Mr. Busch admits that he has not hesitated to supplement what he saw "with his own eyes" with "materials from other trustworthy sources"; in illustration of which the editor of the *Magazin* narrates how, some years ago, being then the editor of a popular journal, he was annoyed by seeing his best articles reprinted without credit, and played a joke on his esteemed contemporaries by publishing an invented anecdote about Bismarck,

which, of course, was reprinted and translated as usual. This anecdote he is naturally pleased to find—unvouched for, indeed—in Busch's latest volumes. The latter's chapter on state socialism is alleged to be taken bodily from Mebring's 'Socialdemokratie,' that on the earlier phase of German socialism from Carl Vogt's 'Mein Prozess'—the sources of his information being carefully concealed. The only original matter, in fact, is said to be abuse of Liberalism, and insulting allusions to persons whom the compiler dislikes.

—"Beiträge zur Charakteristik Nathaniel Hawthorne's" is the title of an essay by Dr. Anton Schönbach, first published in Dr. Kölbings *Englische Studien*, and now reprinted in a pamphlet of 65 pages. A great portion of it is devoted to an elaborate comparative study of the unfinished posthumous stories of Hawthorne, which grew out of his experiences in England, and were various attempts at carrying out one identical theme. The learned professor analyzes 'The Ancestral Footstep,' 'Dr. Grimshawe's Secret,' 'Septimius Felton,' and 'The Dolliver Romance,' and through ample citations from the 'Note Books' traces the common genesis of all these fragments. He considers them valuable as throwing much light on the workings of Hawthorne's mind, and as at the same time affording a glimpse of the manner in which other writers may have developed a crude idea into a finished work of art. He judges Hawthorne to have been the greatest writer whom the United States have as yet produced. He is wholly original and redolent of his native soil. He absorbs English culture, but in a critical spirit, and is not dominated by it. Even after becoming closely acquainted with England his Americanism does not suffer any diminution, but rather he guards it jealously and cherishes it consciously. Further, he is entitled to a high rank in the general category of modern literature, independently of his position as an American representative. His fictions occupy a place by themselves, are the expression of a decided poetic individuality, and refuse to range themselves under any of the accepted classifications. Next to George Eliot he is the greatest English prose writer of our century.

—Professor Schönbach's opinions are supported by a constant reference to everything that has been written by and concerning Hawthorne. Fully four pages of his pamphlet are taken up with a mere list of various jottings in Hawthorne's note books which he made use of in his published works, the latter being in each case specifically indicated. The essay gives evidence also of an intimate acquaintance and a high appreciation of American literature in general. The best English fiction, says the writer, comes from America, and the most elegant English, since the death of George Eliot, is written by Henry James, jr. This he thinks the more remarkable as it is hardly more than half a century since the United States declared their literary independence, which dates from the transcendental movement. Whatever is distinctive in the American national character emanates from New England, more particularly from Massachusetts. It will be judged from these specimens that in spite of insisting a little too much on details, Dr. Schönbach's essay is a valuable contribution to American literary history and criticism. It is to be regretted that articles of this description are so rare in our own magazines and reviews, which are devoted on the one hand to being "readable," and on the other to being "timely," with the frequent result in both cases of being only scrappy, and producing little or nothing of lasting literary value.



—A collection of old German rhymes, such as may be found in every nook and corner of Germany, in churches and inns, on bridges and fountains, tombstones and bumpers, ought to be pleasant and suggestive reading; but somehow Herr H. Drahm, who has gathered a number of such inscriptions into a quaint little volume (*Deutsche Reime, Inschriften des 15. Jahrhunderts und der folgenden*; Berlin: Weidmann), has missed his opportunity. Although his collection begins with the fifteenth century and extends to the present day, it reflects none of the characteristics of the homely muse of Germany so faithfully as its piety. The book is, on the whole, a very sober, almost lugubrious, one; there hangs about it the air of graveyards and cloisters, the musty smell of old chronicles and missals; but there is very little of the "wit and wisdom" of bygone ages. Evidently the contributors to the collection, worthy pedagogues and pastors, took their task too seriously. "Faith," "The Ten Commandments," "The Sufferings of Christ," "Death and Life," "Bible and Religion," "God's Omnipotence," such, almost without a break, are the subdivisions of the first part of the book; and even when we approach more modern times we are entertained with scarcely anything more cheerful than "Cares and Devotion," "Eternity," "Courage and Conduct of Life," etc. However, humor is by no means wholly wanting in this collection; for even the most pious monks of the Middle Ages knew how to flavor their exhortations with a vein of grim pleasantry, as witness the "death-dances" of the fifteenth century. The well-known dialogues between Death and representatives of all the social classes, from the Pope down to the beggar, are here introduced in a modern dress, and are all the more enjoyable on that account; indeed, we cannot doubt that a more general employment of the current orthography would have added to the attractiveness of the book. Humor too—of a type not peculiar to mediæval Germany alone—may be found in the epitaphs on shrewish wives, in jokes at the expense of rascally butchers and bakers; while the poetry of beer casks and goblets is both more characteristic and less enjoyable. Alone in general interest is the plaintive soliloquy of a Hessian farthing of the beginning of the seventeenth century, on its depreciation. It may not seem strange that, on the whole, German rhymsters had so little to say in the days when Latin was the real language of the learned and thoughtful; but it certainly is surprising that the rhymes here quoted deteriorate towards the end of the collection. Most of the epitaphs of recent date are worthy of the obituary bards of the newspaper columns. The inscription from the tombstone of the elder Kleist gives almost the only hint of what valuable material the tombs of distinguished men might have furnished to this collection. Although in the preface Latin inscriptions are said to be excluded from the book, there are several given on the second page—an intrusion which will not be resented by those who know how weak are the German variations of such Latin bell mottoes as:

"Sabbata pango, funera plango, noxia frango,  
Exalto lentos, paco cruentes, dissipo ventos."

Similarly feeble are the changes rung on the old tombstone inscription:

"Quod es, fui; quod sum, eris: para te."

That the editor has ignored Austria in his collection—Vienna in itself being a rich mine of old and curious German inscriptions—is characteristic of the narrowness of his plan.

—The educational statistics recently published by the Italian Government furnish valuable information in regard to the progress in public in-

struction made in that country. In the twelve years since 1871 the annual governmental expenditures have increased at a steady rate from 16,300,000 lire in 1871, to 30,400,000 in 1883. The organic law of 1859, making instruction compulsory and gratuitous for all children from six to twelve years of age, seems not to have been carried into execution. By that law the communes were required to defray the expense of erecting the new school-houses required, and it is not singular that the statute was very generally evaded. From 1861 to 1881 the number of primary schools increased from 21,353 to 42,510; and during the same period the number of pupils enrolled was extended from 1,008,674 to 1,928,708. In 1877 the obligatory law of 1859 was modified in some essential particulars. Primary education was now made compulsory only in such communes as furnished the requisite accommodations; namely, in all communes of less than 5,000 inhabitants with at least one teacher to every 1,000 persons; in all communes of from 5,000 to 20,000 inhabitants with at least one teacher to every 1,200 persons; and in all the more important communes with at least one teacher to every 1,500 persons. This law of 1877 appears to have resulted in some increase of the number of pupils in attendance; yet the figures given are but a new evidence of the difficulty of enforcing any law that is not supported by a strong popular opinion. Even in 1879 the number of pupils in attendance was only 768 to every 10,000 of the inhabitants. In secondary and higher education the showing is much better. There are 701 gymnasias with 3,674 teachers, and with courses extending through five years. These are attended by 41,124 pupils, or about 58 pupils each. The colleges, which in the course of three years supplement the instruction in the gymnasias and complete the preparation for the university, are 238 in number, and show an enrolment of 1,601 teachers and 11,133 pupils. Besides the colleges there are 383 technical schools of corresponding grade, with a force of 2,704 teachers and an attendance of pupils amounting to 22,120. The seventeen royal universities of Italy showed an enrolment in 1881 of 10,502 students, the largest, those at Turin and Naples, having 1,651 and 2,851 respectively. In the four independent universities and the twenty-one superior schools there were in the same year 1,948 students, making a total attendance in the higher institutions of learning of 12,805. This number is much greater than the attendance at schools of a corresponding grade in England, though only about half the number in attendance at the universities of Germany. In this thriving condition of the higher educational institutions of Italy we see but another evidence of the remarkable intellectual activity of the people.

—In the little Galician town of Stanislaw a scholar is busily engaged in editing a work which, when finished, will undoubtedly prove to be of great importance not only to investigators of the Slavic languages, but also to students of comparative philology. Prof. Eugen Zhelekhovski began the publication of his Ruthenian (Little-Russian)-German dictionary in 1882, and a few weeks ago we received the eighth part of the work (up to page 400), which extends as far as the beginning of the letter L. Those who know how rich the Ruthenian language is, and how little has been done hitherto for its scientific investigation, will certainly admire both the courage of Mr. Zhelekhovski in undertaking such a work, and the skill with which he fulfils his task. The already existing vocabularies by Piskunov, Leotchenko, and others are so small that they can be of but little help to a compiler of a dictionary, and with the sole exception of

Ogonowski's excellent book, *Studien auf dem Gebiete der ruthenischen Sprache* (Lemberg, 1880), the grammatical treatises on the language do not furnish much material for Mr. Zhelekhovski's work. He had, therefore, even for the most common words, to go back to the literature itself, and wherever we have been able to test him, we have found him very accurate and trustworthy. He has gathered a large number of words, never before mentioned in any vocabulary, not only from the classics of the Ruthenian tongue, like Gogol (the father), Kotlyarevski, Shevchenko, Marko Voytechok, Fedkovitch, etc. (and for these sources his work is done with systematic completeness), but also from the rich collections of popular songs and stories, like those of Antonovitch and Dragomanov, Golovatski, Tchubinski, and many others which are less known except to specialists. Now and then a dialectic expression in Tchubinski's popular stories, or in Golovatski's songs seems to be lacking in Zhelekhovski, but such words, which the various collectors of popular traditions spell so differently, may almost always be found in their right place, if we remember that Zhelekhovski uses a strictly phonetic spelling. We hope that this first Ruthenian dictionary will find access to our larger libraries; for it will prove to be of great service not only to the philologist, but also to the "folk-lore"ist.

#### SCHUYLER'S PETER THE GREAT—I.

*Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia. A Study of Historical Biography.* By Eugene Schuyler, Ph.D., LL.D., Author of 'Turkistan' In two volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

'PETER THE GREAT' is more than an historical-biographical "study." It is a history of Peter and his reign—of his life and struggles, his reforms, wars, and diplomacy—with comprehensive digressions, illustrative of things and characters not so closely connected with the main subject as necessarily to enter into a biography. That the author designates it as a study is explainable by his mental and literary bent, as apparent in his writings, and not in these alone; he is a constant and indefatigable student of ethnology and languages, of modern history and diplomatic relations. Exhaustive and conscientious research, and hesitation in forming conclusions and adopting judgments, are characteristic of all his activity. Even after having amply mastered his subject, he does not group his results, but lays before the public single facts and aspects separately examined, out of which a whole is to be constructed by those who follow him through the entire course of examination. In the work before us there is no rounded picture of either Peter, his nation, or his time; but Peter, his nation, and his time are made to pass before us in successive attitudes, actions, and stages, in chronological order, and the reader is left to judge and to combine. Such is the author's abstention from generalizing, summing up, and reviewing that, in spite of exhaustiveness pushed almost beyond limit, he seems to consider the mass of details accumulated by him still inadequate for his task as a historical biographer, or, as we should say, as a historian and biographer.

Mr. Schuyler had before him an immense literature from which to draw materials, for the Russian historical writers, who are hindered by restrictions and considerations of prudences from freely discussing topics of recent date, have piled up stores of most minute information on their national past, and German, Swedish, and other compilers and critics have helped them in ransacking archives and sifting testimony. He has availed himself of these resources with extra-



ordinary diligence, extracting from biographies, memoirs, diaries, correspondence, and records of all kinds an amount of particulars sufficient to give a fulness to each separate subdivision of his subject, and vastly more than sufficient for the general characterization. And herein lie both the strength and the weakness of Mr. Schuyler's work. The division and arrangement of his matter are excellent, and there is order in the whole and symmetry in the parts; but the fulness of the parts makes the whole heavy, though clearness is everywhere preserved in spite of the great crowding of facts. On the whole, the book is, we think, better adapted for the general European, and even the special Russian literary market, than for the English or American, and will, no doubt, be translated, as it deserves to be, into Russian and other languages. Its profusely varied, highly characteristic, and not seldom charming illustrations will make it an attractive addition to every library.

Two hundred years ago, when Peter was a little boy, Muscovy had begun to emerge slowly from its Asiatic barbarism. His sister Sophia, the regent for his elder brother Ivan and himself, showed in her administration a slight tendency toward reform and the creation of a better-regulated order. Wives were no longer to be buried alive for the murder of their husbands, creditors were no longer allowed to kill or maim their debtors, serf women who had married soldiers were allowed to remain free. The influence of foreigners—Germans, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, Poles—began to make itself felt. Peter, as a youth, associated with a motley crowd of denizens in the "German suburb" of Moscow, and adopted foreign habits, tastes, and prejudices, without divesting himself of his Muscovitish instincts, or in the least taming the fierce impulses of his nature. He contracted a passion for playing at war and boat-building, with the desire and view of creating a well-disciplined army and a navy, and the expectation of doing great things as monarch of a great nation. His ambition was as impetuous, and his violence as uncontrollable, as his frame was gigantic and his strength prodigious. When, in 1689, he had removed Sophia from the regency and baffled attempts at reinstating her in power through a rising of the Strieltzi—the Janissaries of Russia under the early Romanoffs—he chastised conspirators whose guilt was elicited by torture in this fashion: "Shaklovitz, Petróf, and Tchérémny were beheaded, Major Múromtsef, Colonel Riazántsef, and the prisoner Lavréntief were beaten with the knout, and, after having their tongues torn out, were exiled to Siberia. Sylvester Medvédfef . . . was arrested in the monastery of Biziúk, together with Major Gládsky, and sent to Tróitsa" (mark Mr. Schuyler's care in transliterating names, as well as the unnecessary profusion of them), tortured, degraded from the clergy, and confined, again denounced, "and again subjected to the severe torture of fire and hot iron, and was finally executed in 1691."

The young Czar, who was now virtually sole master of Russia, continued to spend a great deal of his time in the society of his foreign friends, and especially of his able advisers, Gordon and Lefort. Dinner frequently lasted from noon till late in the night, sometimes till next morning. There was excessive drinking. Gordon's diary is full of it. Lefort, in one of his letters, speaks of spending in his house for wine in two or three months a sum equivalent to about \$25,000. "It is not to be supposed," says Mr. Schuyler, "that, because so much liquor was used, the company was constantly intoxicated. . . . There were heroic meals, intervals for smoking the interdicted tobacco, games, matches in archery and musketry practice, speech-mak-

ing, and music, and in the evening fireworks and dancing. Lefort's house was in reality a kind of club-house for Peter and his boon companions. Peter was fond of masquerading, buffoonery, and practical jokes. During the Christmas holidays he went with his comrades from house to house, singing carols and receiving the usual gifts. Once the Czar appeared at Lefort's with a suite of twenty-four mounted dwarfs, and a few days after both rode out into the country to exercise this cavalry. In 1695 there was a great banquet on the occasion of the court fool's wedding, which was pompously celebrated in the open fields near Moscow; the festivities lasted three days, and were accompanied by a procession in which the highest nobles of the realm appeared in ludicrous costumes, in cars drawn by cows, goats, dogs, and swine. In this manner the future transformer of Muscovy spent much of his time. Of family life he knew little. He had married simply to obey his mother, and he found the society of his old-fashioned wife, Eudoxia, very uncongenial. Anna Mons, the daughter of a German jeweller, was then his great favorite. He loved, however, his mother and sister Natalia, though when the former died, in 1694, he expressed, in a letter to his friend Apraxin, rather shallow sentiments of filial and religious piety.

Peter's first marine experiments were made at the mouth of the Dvina in the White Sea. On the capture of Azov from the Turks in 1696, after two not over-glorious campaigns, he formed the design of establishing a fleet in the Black Sea, near the opposite shores of his realm. He had, by the death of his brother Ivan, just become sole ruler, and he threw himself with passionate ardor into the enterprise. Every landed proprietor owning ten thousand peasant houses, every monastery owning eight thousand, was obliged to construct a ship, equip and arm it; all other proprietors owning not less than one hundred peasant houses were enrolled into companies for construction; the merchants were required to contribute twelve mortar boats. The ships and galleys were to be built at Voronezh, on the Don. Shipwrights were brought from Venice, Denmark, Sweden, and Holland. To learn the nautical art and shipbuilding, fifty nobles, representatives of the highest families—most of them married and fathers of children—were summarily ordered to Italy, Holland, or England. Shortly afterward, the Czar himself went abroad to become a good shipwright. He went under the strictest incognito as a "volunteer," attached, among many others, to an extraordinary embassy to the chief countries of Western Europe, at the head of which was General Lefort. The acquisition of nautical knowledge and skill was to Peter not an object of whimsical desire or aimless curiosity. It was to become an instrument, as he wrote from Holland, in fighting the enemies of Jesus Christ and liberating the Christians who live under them. And in that country, which he reached in August, 1697, at Zaandam, Amsterdam, Leyden, Delft, and elsewhere, everything engaged Peter's eager inquisitiveness. He visited workshops, museums, theatres, hospitals; he went to see Boerhave and his botanical garden; studied the microscope under Leeuwenhoek, made the intimate acquaintance of the great military engineer, Coehorn, and of Admiral Van Scheij; learned to etch under the direction of Schonebeck; and frequented the lecture-room of the anatomist Ruysch. He learned cobbling and dentistry, experimenting on his servants and suite. In a similar way he lived in England. In both countries he attracted gazing crowds—for his incognito proved unavailable—as well as the attention of the highest circles. Burnet thus speaks of him in the "History of his Own Time":

"He is a man of very hot temper, soon inflamed and very brutal in his passion; he raises his natural heat by drinking much brandy, which he rectifies himself with great application; he is subject to convulsive motions all over his body, and his head seems to be affected with these; he wants not capacity, and has a larger measure of knowledge than might be expected from his education, which was very indifferent; a want of judgment with an instability of temper appears in him too often and too evidently. He is mechanically turned, and seems designed by nature rather to be a ship-carpenter than a great prince. This was his chief study and exercise while he stayed here; he wrought much with his own hands, and made all about him work at the models of ships . . . He is resolute, but understands little of war, and seems not at all inquisitive that way. After I had seen him often, and had conversed much with him, I could not but adore the depth of the providence of God that had raised up such a furious man to so absolute an authority over so great a part of the world."

The "furious man" was suddenly called home by a revolt of the Strieltzi, aiming at his overthrow and the raising of his sister Sophia to the throne. The revolt was stifled in blood before his return, in September, 1698, but, dissatisfied with the trial of the ringleaders, and anxious to settle the question of Sophia's share in the disturbance, he instituted a new criminal investigation on a tremendous scale, which proved how little a year's contact with the civilized world had changed his nature or his idea of "absolute authority." He had all the Strieltzi, who were kept under guard, brought in batches to Preobrazhensk, near Moscow, where fourteen torture-chambers were established, presided over by Princes Telerkasski, Dolgoruki, Golitzyn, and eleven other grandees—"Russians he had most confidence in for that sort of work." The Czar was himself present at the work, and personally questioned those who seemed most guilty. The torture was of three kinds: by rods, the knout, and fire. "In this way"—we omit the revolting particulars—"1,714 men were examined, and Guarient and Korb write that thirty fires were daily burning . . . for this purpose." The extorted depositions proved very little, but "Peter chose to be satisfied of the complicity of his sister," and imprisoned her in a convent. Her sister Martha was also made a nun, and both were kept confined till their death. Of the first batch of the Strieltzi examined, numbering 341 in all, 196 were hanged along the walls and at the gates of Moscow, five were beheaded, and a hundred, who were under age, were branded in the right cheek and banished. Of the second batch, 770 men were executed. Of these, 95 were hanged on a large square gallows in front of Sophia's cell, and three remained hanging all winter under her window. There is also strong evidence to the fact that on one day, in the Czar's presence, and by his order, 109 men were beheaded by the nobles of his court. Whether Peter himself acted as executioner "remains a question." Such was Russia at the close of the seventeenth century, and such the Czar who undertook to civilize her. His equally despotic and insane crusade against beards and long robes, in which he was occasionally active in person, also belongs to this period.

Peter's private life was then in harmony with his public activity. He sent his wife Eudoxia to a cloister, there to live a life of abject penury and moral degradation, and resumed his carousing with his favorites in the German suburb. There was no end of revelling, buffoonery, and blasphemous jesting; there were bacchanalian festivities. Boisterous merriment was now and then interrupted by outbursts of Czarish madness. Sometimes, however, he gave way to melancholy and despondency. At the news of Lefort's death, in 1699, he burst into sobs, crying, "Now I am left without one trusty man." He felt



keenly his inability to cope with the corruption of his Russian officials, which hampered all his undertakings. A few months later he lost another faithful friend. The Scotchman Gordon followed in death the Swiss Lefort. The Russian Menshikoff, one of Peter's former play-soldiers, now rose to the highest influence as a favorite, adviser, and general. He was handsome, witty, of quick intelligence, but of ligat morals. Peter once said of him, "Menshikoff was conceived in iniquity, born in sin, and will end his life as a rascal and a cheat." And such was his end, but after Peter's reign and after that of his widow, Catharine I., whom Menshikoff had ceded as a young mistress to the amorous cupidity of the Czar. Menshikoff and Catharine, though both of low origin, were more congenial to Peter than others of his surroundings: they understood him, and knew how to deal with him.

*The Spanish Masters: An Outline of the History of Painting in Spain.* By Emelyn W. Washburn. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE history of painting in Spain is one which does not require much archaeological research, nor is the material presented of great interest in the philosophy of art. With the exception of Velazquez, who heads the roll of great realistic painters of all nations and all time, and Goya, an artist of great imagination, there is in the record of Spanish art little or nothing not due to Italian inspiration. Where there is departure from Italian tradition, it proceeds from the ecclesiastical narrowness of mind which came near to stifling the tender exotic, and probably would have done so but for persistently renewed importations. It is a record which shows better than any other the inevitable antagonism between ecclesiasticism and art, and how completely unfounded are the claims of the Church to have fostered the development of the arts.

The résumé of the chronicle of the arts in Spain in the book under notice is a compact, well-arranged history, and as such deserves commendation, even in view of its want of perspective, which gives it the air of making too many great men where comparative magnitudes really differ so much. There is a little too much affectation in using Spanish terms, as, *retablo* instead of picture; for though literally this word means a picture on panel, the author employs it for those on canvas as well. The archaeological part of the book is sufficient for the subject, and is based on good authorities well collated, as Surling Maxwell, Ford, and Head, with references to the native chroniclers, and on interest in, and study of, the original works in the Spanish galleries. The volume is not to be classed with the authoritative work of Morelli, but takes its place as a hand book of unquestionable value.

We must, however, take exception to the very indiscriminating manner in which the opinions of other writers are used, and to the crude and unphilosophical views of the author. To collate and justify authorities is one thing, to compare and weigh opinions quite another; and the writer who may be entirely competent to do the former must completely fail in the latter unless his views are sufficiently ripe and sound to make the collator a competent judge without reference to those opinions. If he is not qualified to pronounce judgment on a work of art independently, how shall he be able to endorse or compare the opinions of others? The assumption of so doing is either a claim to superiority in some respect, or a confession of incompetence; and the value of the author's own opinions must be judged from his independent judgments. What can we say to the author of such expressions as this:

"In his picture of San Pedro de Alcantara there is what embodies most powerfully the secret of painting, its ability to body forth the spiritual. It is the eye of the saint in his rapt utterance, and it conveys indeed that conception in its fulness: not the eye of the common observer gazing on visible things before him; not the eye of the philosopher seeing vague forms in its blank abstraction, but the keen eye of the imagination shaping the unseen thought in all the distinctness of reality—'seeing the invisible,' in the language of St. Paul."

At the risk of being discourteous, we must say that this is not criticism of art. The eye sees what is visible, and the secret of painting is to paint what can be seen. That any observer can see in the eye of a painted saint what he saw which was invisible, is a sentimental fallacy which may be in place in a spiritualistic "circle," but is not in art criticism. There is but one way to paint a thing well, and that is to paint it as if seen: what is unseen belongs to the poet, not the painter. Another passage equally objectionable is this:

"In the great epochs of life, whether in religion or art or letters, we find this universal law, that the man who leads the age is he who has winnowed the dusty chamber of opinions with a knowledge drawn from living sources. Luther goes back from the scholastic divinity to the personal faith in the Christian soul. Descartes studies his own mind, and the insight of his volume out-reaches all the earlier speculative theories. Velazquez rises from Pacheco's teaching to the truer, simpler master—Nature. It is the sure sign of decay when the main purpose of art or literature is to defend the old system, when age on age must repeat the definitions of Fernandez, or the style of Luis de Vargas. Education means, above all, the leading forth of the mental powers of the man. Art tradition cannot take the place of our own minds, and of the real sources of knowledge which are always fresh and as living as in the past," etc., etc., etc.

Or this:

"Among the artists of this age, which Head calls the 'middle period of Spanish painting,' Luis de Morales stands well high alone—a survival of the olden time, and inspired by that religious sentiment which the mediæval Church developed so powerfully. The artists of his day, followers of the Italian Renaissance, had lost that earlier feeling of an 'objective presence' which Morales breathes forth in the very spirit of Fra Angelico and of the early Italian painters. Christianity gave to these masters certain ideas which permeated their thought, feeling, and life. The mystery of God in Christ brought Him high to the heart of humanity, yet spiritually and purely; and nature was the mystic shrine that pointed to the Invisible. Painting with them transcended the material vehicle: it was charged with spiritual meaning. So in the Gothic cathedral the arch and the tapering spire were the symbolic fingers that pointed to an embodied, incommunicable beauty."

"The Greek mind, the most beautiful intelligence that the world has seen, embodied in perfect form the ideas of its religion; and embodied them with equal perfection in the sculptured finish of *Sophocles*, the marble of *Phidias*, or, we may presume, in the lost paintings of *Apelles*."

But a writer who thinks and talks so unscientifically as this should be careful about laying down "universal laws"; and when it comes to "winnowing the dusty chamber of opinions with a knowledge drawn from living sources," we should say a little study of logic would be an assistance, perhaps by way of sprinkling the dusty chamber. In treating of Velazquez, the author gives us this:

"There is a strange melancholy which the grandest works of art sometimes beget in us, especially if we view them whilst we ourselves are in the midst of lofty but unfinished labors. A statue, a painting seem no longer human; they are disengaged from all past processes of imperfection: they have passed from the stage of becoming to the state of chanceless being. We see no more the struggling artist, but, as it were, an instant creation. Their completeness withers our hope. The scaffolding on which a Velazquez stood is gone, and the lofty painting looks down on us with an overwhelming grandeur, an unattainable distance."

We must confess to being lost here. The uninspired use of the English language does not, we believe, avail in these word puzzles.

The illustrations of this volume are indifferent to bad—rather the latter than the former.

*The Chronicles of Newgate.* By Arthur Griffiths. Illustrated. New edition. Scribner & Welford. 1884.

NEWGATE is one of the oldest places for the imprisonment of criminals in the world. As its name indicates, it dates from a time when justice was administered in Europe, as it still is in the East, at the gates of cities. An exact chronicle of what has taken place within its walls would make a curious companion-picture of the changes in manners and habits outside. Of the earlier history of the place, however, there are but scanty materials. The jail calendars, which are our main reliance, are chiefly, if not altogether, modern records, and the historic life of the jail is a growth of the last two or three centuries. Most of the existing body of Newgate learning is common property, and in looking over Mr. Griffiths's volume the reader is continually reminded of the curious fact that so many of the most familiar names in literature are those of criminals of the vilest sort, who nevertheless were popular heroes in their day. Crimes of violence seem in the last century and the century before to have invested those who committed them with an interest that we know little of, partly, perhaps, because the public has no opportunity nowadays of interesting itself in its criminals en masse, either in the hue and cry or in the procession to Tyburn. Captain Kidd, Jack Sheppard, Dick Turpin, Jonathan Wild, occupy a more interesting historical position than we can expect any of the criminals of our day to hold in the next century, and the effort to endue ruffians like the James outlaws with a halo of romance amounts to little more than a ghastly burlesque of a bygone fashion. The noted Newgate criminals of a later period—the Mannings, the Courvoisiers, the Fauntleroy—have a much poorer literary standing than their immediate predecessors, and Newgate itself has ceased to be a place of any dramatic or romantic consequence. As a place of detention for religious and political offenders it long since lost all interest, though for many a year it supplied the fires of Smithfield with their human fuel, and the Tower scaffold with the ill-fated victims of political hatred and vengeance.

We are accustomed to congratulate ourselves on the wonderful progress that we have made within a few generations in our way of dealing with crime and criminals, and the fact that we do not torture them, nor starve them, nor kill them except for very grave reasons is incontestable; but our criminal records do not give us much reason to believe that civilization has yet begun to sap the forces which produce crime, or to convert them into good agencies. Our manners are milder, and we shrink from the infliction of cruelty; our laws forbid unusual or excessive punishments; we have taught ourselves, in a way that would have seemed to our ancestors laughable, to put ourselves in the criminal's place, and to understand the temptations which have led him astray. By these means, a system of philanthropic reformation has been elaborated which is capable in efficient hands of producing wonderful results. But our philanthropy and sympathy have led also to a general relaxation of the old desire for the criminal's punishment, until we now continually see a homicide followed by an outburst of sympathy for the murderer—a singular substitute for the social desire for vengeance or retribution, on which any system of punishment must rest. Th-



effects of this state of feeling in procuring immunity for criminals must tend to that insecurity of life which, in the long run, will produce a reaction in favor of severity. There is no reason for thinking, however, that we shall return to the primitive barbarism of feeling which led to the bloody penal code of a hundred years ago. Nothing is more difficult to understand now than the inaccessibility of our ancestors to those feelings of sympathy and pity which make systematic cruelty in punishment in our time out of the question. One of the interesting cuts in Mr. Griffiths's volume represents a prisoner undergoing the *peine forte et dure*, or being pressed to death by heavy weights. The object of this horrible torture was to make persons accused of crime plead. As long as they remained silent they could not be tried; and if they died without a trial they were not felons and their estates could not be confiscated. For this reason prisoners were now and then found heroic enough to endure this terrible death rather than say guilty or not guilty. The imagination of the scene of the suffering—the wretched victim chained to the floor and the added weights slowly but surely stifling him, the jailors standing by and watching his agonies—is enough to sicken the reader without the picture, which, as in the case of many another horror, gives the whole a slightly ludicrous turn. But it was not long ago that such punishments were thought valuable for their deterrent effect.

On the whole, the long record of crimes presented in such a volume as Mr. Griffiths's brings out not the romance so much as the commonplace, vulgar character of crime. It is a dreary record of murders, robberies, forgeries, arson, and perjury, unredeemed for the most part by a single fine incident, and never in modern times rising to a tragic level. It seems, indeed, to be a literary fallacy which renders crime romantic or interesting; for when we come near the criminal, we nearly always find him to be a vulgar, sordid wretch, who loses his human interest as he becomes steeped in criminality and habituated to violations of the law. The criminals who are led into crime by excessive ambition, by a generous desire to save some one else from the consequences of their folly, are to be found on the stage and in books, but not in such books as the *Newgate chronicle*. Simple idleness and a desire to enjoy the good things of life without working for them, seem to be the explanation of most of the crime that is committed; and the great problem of "penology" is so to arrange things that the reward of crime shall be not the good things of life, but hard fare and just that severe labor which the criminal most fears—certain retribution, without cruelty. Mild punishments, made more lax by the uncertainty of the administration of the law, must in the long run prove just as dangerous to society as the excessive rigor of a cruel age.

*The Creators of the Age of Steel.* By W. T. Jeans. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE misnomer of Mr. Jeans's book is the result of a false perspective of the arts involved in civilization. The "age of steel" began, so far as our civilization is concerned, when the Romans used the Celtiberian steel against the Gauls, whose longer swords had no temper. The great development of steel industry of which Bessemer, Siemens, Whitworth, and their lesser companions in the *Walhalla* of Mr. Jeans were the promoters, was the cause of one of the greatest modern increments of industrial wealth; but steel had ruled the world for centuries before Bessemer was born, and when we measure things comparatively it may be found that Benjamin Huntsman, the inventor of cast steel, who is

not one of Mr. Jeans's heroes, has had a more important relative influence on the metallurgic wealth of England than Bessemer. The "age of steel" opened when a way was found to make an iron which would temper, and, like the "age of bronze" or that of stone, has had successive dawns in various countries. There exists in Franklin County, N. Y., an iron ore which, cast directly from the smelting furnace into cutting tools, takes admirable temper. can be hammered, etc., and if some accident had developed the smelting process for the Iroquois as is fabled of the Chalybes, who are said to have found iron after a great conflagration of forests on Mount Ida, the age of steel might have revolutionized North America before Christopher Columbus discovered it. The shallow view that the inventors of processes by which great wealth is rapidly developed, are correspondingly great benefactors of the human race, and to be honored accordingly, is supported by the heralds' college, but not by history or philosophy. Riches make their own apotheosis, and have no need of the extravagant laudation of Mr. Jeans for their agents. Genius, in whatever branch of human occupation, merits and receives its due respect, but to graduate this reverence by the scale of the pecuniary results is to go back to the golden calf.

Thus, apropos of the Bessemer process we are told:

"According to the best information extant, it appears that in the twenty-one years that elapsed after the process was first successfully worked, the production of steel by it, notwithstanding its slow progress at first, amounted to no less than 25,000,000 tons; and if we were to estimate the saving as compared with the old process which it superseded, at £40 a ton, the total would be about £1,000,000,000. . . . Such a man needs no honors; but no industrial nation could afford to let him go unhonored. Hence honors and distinctions have been showered on him from all quarters."

The struggles of Bessemer, the corrupt and partisan course of the officials of the crown in his case, and, still more, in Whitworth's, and the patient persistence in the pursuit of a definite result through years of experiment and failure, make Mr. Jeans's book an interesting one, though apparently only a very one-sided compilation. Whitworth, as a clear-eyed, systematic, and great mechanical inventor, as a practical mechanic who has probably never been surpassed in the records of mechanical industry, seems to us much the greatest hero of Mr. Jeans's list; and Siemens, as a scientist of a higher type than Bessemer, since his discoveries are more far-reaching and of more true and comprehensive benefit to the human race, should also have preceded the latter, and, if there is justice in the future of Fame, will do so.

The English and Prussian Governments, according to the author, vied in meanness toward Bessemer, but the Prussian excelled easily in dishonesty. The record, in this matter, of both Governments is quite on a par with that of the most ungrateful republics. The artillery question, as brought out in the histories of Bessemer and Whitworth, shows the ordnance authorities of the English Government in a position (which also better authority than Mr. Jeans exists for recognizing) utterly disgraceful and degrading. The hold of Sir William Armstrong on the Ordnance Department of England is probably excelled by nothing in the corrupt records of our American rings. Pages 81 and 91 of the book ought not to be pleasant reading to honest and patriotic Germans and Englishmen.

The author curiously ignores all the discoveries made in America. When dealing with Siemens's researches into light, he credits incidentally Lockyer and others in England for researches far surpassed by those of Langley, of the Allegheny Observatory, who is not mentioned;

and when Mr. Jeans comes to Mr. Whitworth's studies in the rifle, he does not seem to know that Whitworth found in the manufacture of the Kentucky rifle in America the secret of the certainty of rifle construction—the hexagonal bore, known by his name still, but which we who write used above forty years ago, when it was being abandoned. The manufacture of rifles then was, as an art, only known in the United States, and for short-range shooting is still far in advance of that of England, though the experiments of Whitworth on the relation of the size and shape of missiles for long-range shooting, and their relation to the rifling of the gun, have never been equalled as systematic and extensive research by any gun-maker on either side of the Atlantic. The persistent neglect—contempt, perhaps—with which Sir Joseph Whitworth has been treated by his own Government, is one of the most disgraceful things in the history of English industry, though it is almost equalled by the treatment of Bessemer.

*Spanish and Portuguese South America during the Colonial Period.* By Robert Grant Watson, Editor of *Murray's Handbook of Greece*, Fourth edition. In two volumes. London: Trübner & Co. 1884.

In 1866 Mr. Watson received the appointment of second Secretary of the British Legation in the Argentine Republic and Paraguay. His previous experience having been in an entirely different part of the world, he looked for information regarding South America among English books, and found almost none. At the place of his destination he discovered that there was plenty of it in Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and other foreign languages, and gradually became acquainted with the literature on the subject. Of two years of diplomatic service in America, he passed one in Buenos Ayres and the other in Rio de Janeiro. He successively visited Uruguay, the Argentine province of Santa Fé, Patagonia, Paraguay (then a seat of war), and the Brazilian province of Minas Geraes. He collected voluminous materials for the elaboration of a work on South America, such as he had felt the want of, but, owing to subsequent employment in several countries of the Eastern Hemisphere, only recently found the necessary leisure to compose it. He unpretentiously offers it to the public as a much needed epitome of more elaborate and original works, and as such it deserves a great deal of credit. It is strictly confined to South America. It relates successively the discovery of the main land (1498), and of the Pacific Ocean; the careers of Balboa and Las Casas; the discovery of Brazil, La Plata, and Paraguay; the discovery and conquest of Peru and Chili (1521-50); the exploration of Brazil: the rebellion of Gonzalo Pizarro and other events in Peru; the Araucanian war (1550-60) and its consequences; the growth of the Brazilian colony; the arrival of the Jesuits in Paraguay (1608 and after); the southern voyages of Hawkins, Drake, and Raleigh; the Dutch war for the possession of Brazil (1623-45), and the creation of the Jesuit missions in the north of that country; the French efforts to establish themselves in South America; the advance of Brazil in the seventeenth century; the history of the Viceroyalties of Peru and New Granada; the mining discoveries and other events in Brazil; the rise of Buenos Ayres; the expulsion of the Jesuits from Portugal and Brazil (1759-67), from Buenos Ayres and Paraguay; the arrival of the Braganza dynasty in Brazil, and the English expeditions to La Plata (1806-07). The history of the transition, through insurrection and war, from the colonial state to independence is not told.

The narratives are plain and minute in a some-



what diffuse style. There is no attempt at rhetorical embellishment, picturesque description, or ethnological disquisition. A liberal and humane spirit, averse to all forms of oppression, fanaticism, and intolerance, pervades the whole book. This liberalism is coupled with a strong sense of impartiality and of fairness even toward the oppressor and bloody bigot. The story is a dismal one, almost from beginning to end. Ruthless conquest, rapine and torture, enslavement and extermination, fratricidal conflicts, fanaticism and ignorance, colonial oppression, the reign of monopoly, stupid maladministration, invasion—these are the successive or alternating topics, seldom redeemed by instances of noble devotion such as has rendered immortal the philanthropy of Las Casas, or of high administrative sagacity like that displayed by the Jesuits in the treatment of the Indians in their districts. Our author does full justice to the zeal and skill with which the Jesuits carried on their work of converting and training the Indians, especially in Paraguay, but he does not fail to add, "Their system of government had been so absolute, and their disciples had been reduced to such a condition of being merely thoughtless animals or machines, that, when the guidance of the Fathers was withdrawn, the whole system established by them suddenly and absolutely collapsed." The cruelties perpetrated on the Fathers in the execution of the decrees of expulsion are related with sympathetic feeling. The author avoids harshness of expression and sweeping denunciations. The following, on the "national disgrace" of Portugal, is a characteristic exception:

"There seems indeed something peculiarly ingrained in the Portuguese race which makes them take to slave-dealing and slave-hunting as naturally as greyhounds take to chasing hares; and this observation applies not to one section of the race alone, but to Portuguese wherever they are to be found beyond the reach of European law. No modern race can be cited as slave-hunters within measurable distance of the Portuguese. Their exploits in this respect are written in the annals not only of the whole coast of Brazil, from Pará to Uruguay, and along the Misiones of Paraguay, not only on the coast of Angola, but throughout the interior of Africa. We may take up the journals of one traveller after another, of Burton, of Livingstone, of Stanley, or of Cameron, and, in whatever respects their accounts and opinions may differ, on one point they are one and all entirely agreed, namely, as to the pestilent and remorseless activity of the ubiquitous Portuguese slave catcher."

*Lessing. Geschichte seines Lebens und seiner Schriften. Von Dr. Erich Schmidt. Erster Band, pp. 487. Berlin: Weidmann'sche Buchhandlung. 1884.*

A NEW life of Lessing has at once the advantage and the disadvantage of coming after one of the best biographies in the German language. For largeness of conception and thoroughness of execution the volume published by T. W. Danzel in 1850 is hard to improve upon. But Danzel, very abstruse in matter and in manner, is unreadable except for scholars; and the continuation of his work by G. E. Guhrauer, who died in 1854, while his part of the enterprise was still in press, is entirely different in style and in the quality of the thought. Thus the work as a whole lacks unity. The various lives of Lessing that have appeared in Germany and England since 1854 are dilutions of the Danzel-Guhrauer biography. They present little or nothing in the way of new facts or new criticism, and are not based primarily upon independent research.

Prof. Erich Schmidt, of the University of Vienna, has accordingly undertaken to make a Life of Lessing that shall be up with the times. His first volume, a book well made in every way, and adorned with a spirited etching

of the Lessing portrait commonly ascribed to Tischbein, ends with a section on "Minna von Barnhelm." It thus covers the first thirty-six years of Lessing's life, or precisely the same ground covered by the work of Danzel, which it aims to supplement rather than to supersede. Danzel's strength was philosophical, Schmidt's is historical. He is a man of great learning in the imaginative literature of the eighteenth century, and is in his element when depicting the relations of Lessing to English and French writers, when describing the persons and places that Lessing had to do with, or when trying to revivify for a moment some one of the multitudinous literary pigmies whom Lessing slew and embalmed. Schmidt's work is always acute and always thorough; and the result of all this acuteness and thoroughness is a book which will be very valuable to one who is already perfectly informed about Lessing and his mental environment, and very unsatisfactory, if not soporific, to one who is not. Even a fairly educated reader will find in Schmidt a good deal of matter about men that he has never heard of, books that he has never read, and events of which he does not see the bearing. The underlying conception of the book seems to be that Lessing was a very great man, and that, therefore, nothing that in the remotest way concerns him can be uninteresting. There is little or no effort to deal with anything but minute details; but this of course is unavoidable if one must write nearly 400 pages on the part of Lessing's life which precedes his greatness. To find fault with an author for doing that is to find fault with the whole German *modus operandi* in matters of this kind. In a better state of civilization, we hope, one volume of moderate size will be thought enough to contain the life of any man of letters who has been dead a hundred years.

Schmidt's style may be safely called piquant. He has none of Danzel's Hegelian deep-diving, but instead of that he has any number of recondite facetiae, which render it important to read him in the neighborhood of a good reference library. A countryman of his gently expostulates with him in the *Leipzig Centralblatt* in regard to this profusion of jests. But that is only the austerity of German science. The cisatlantic public will not find Professor Schmidt's book too humorous.

*Richard Baxter. By G. S. Boyle, M.A., Dean of Salisbury. A. C. Armstrong & Co. 1884.* This volume is the sixth of a series of "Heroes of Christian History." The author's task has evidently been somewhat perfunctory. He has brought to it no special fitness for biographical writing, and no special sympathy with his subject. Of the four-and-thirty volumes in the "English Men of Letters," it would be difficult to name a single one which is not better done than this; and yet the material was here for a biographical sketch of unusual interest. It has not been produced. The more is the pity, therefore, that the death of Dean Stanley "has deprived the reader of these pages of what would have been a true distinction"—an estimate from him of Baxter's review of his own life.

A brief chapter on his early days is succeeded by one on "The Beginning of Pastoral Work." He was only twenty-four when he entered on his Kidderminster pastorate. England had fallen upon troubled times. On October 23, 1642, he preached at Alcester, and "heard the cannon play" at Edgehill while he was preaching. The next morning he visited the field of battle. The civil war found him in a dreadful strait. He was a devoted monarchist, with a passion for religious liberty. He ranged himself upon the

side of Parliament and took the Covenant, but with a doubtful mind, and sore repentance as the war continued and the Protectorate of Cromwell succeeded the King's death. He took a chaplaincy, but after a period of service his constitutional maladies obliged him to abandon it. Then, "in continual expectation of death, with one foot in the grave," he wrote the first part of "The Saint's Rest," the least polemical and best of all his works, which was first published in the year of the King's death. He had made a heart of quiet for himself in the midst of the most violent passions. After the Restoration, Baxter was offered a bishopric, which he declined, and his letter to Clarendon declining it is an invigorating and inspiring document. When the Act of Uniformity was passed he was ejected from his parish, though sixteen hundred of his parishioners out of eighteen hundred were in his favor. Baxter had thirty years to live, and they had much of sorrow and anxiety, but also great alleviations—a "marriage of true minds" and work to an unlimited extent. His closing years had less of molestation and annoyance from the ruling powers.

The Dean of Salisbury concludes his sketch with chapters on Baxter's review of his own life, on his doctrinal and practical teaching, and his place in history. There is much in these chapters of great interest, and the most of it is in Baxter's own words. Undoubtedly his place is preeminently that of the schoolman of the English Protestants. His thought and character abound in admirable traits, but the Dean of Salisbury has no skill for imparting information: he is very sparing of facts and dates. He seems afraid of telling his readers what they know already, whereas he might safely have reckoned on the general ignorance. His book will teach scholars nothing, and for the average reader it is not sufficiently explicit. It may, however, provoke a thirst that can be slaked at other fountains.

*The Campaigns of the Rebellion. By Albert Todd, First Lieutenant First United States Artillery. Manhattan, Kansas. 1884. Pp. 130.*

IN this little book Mr. Todd has undertaken to state briefly all the material facts of the late war. He has not, we think, been over-careful to state them accurately; but even if his work had been a model in this respect, we should be inclined to doubt its utility. A general sketch of the war can undoubtedly be given in 130 pages; it would take perhaps a clever man to do it, but it could no doubt be done, and it might be very useful to those who purposed making a study of the operations in detail. But a very concise narrative is a wholly different thing; no one, new to the subject, can possibly recollect so many facts, following one another with such unflinching steps. The mind relucts at such condensed food.

Mr. Todd has completely separated his narrative of the operations in the East from his narrative of the operations in the West. Each subject is treated by itself. But surely this is to lose sight of the very important fact of the interdependence of the Eastern and Western campaigns. No correct view of the general posture of affairs at any particular epoch can be gathered from such a treatment as we find in this book. The work is, however, fairly well done for what it purports to be; any one familiar with the war would no doubt say that, as an abridgment of a full history, it was sufficiently provided with all the principal facts. It is written, we presume designedly, in the tone of one who is addressing young people, and the conciseness, which is its chief characteristic, is not infrequently departed from to let in some-



thing of a personal character or otherwise interesting to the reader. Still, as we intimated above, there are inaccuracies. It is news to us to hear that Pickett commanded at Gettysburg any troops besides those of his own division. Nor did we ever hear before that Schofield's army, after the battle of Franklin, was indebted to the friendly cover of the smoke, which, owing to a peculiar condition of the atmosphere, did not rise much above the ground, for its ability to retire unmolested from a field on which it had just inflicted on its adversary such a severe blow. It availed itself certainly of the darkness of night to commence its retirement to Nashville; but the smoke is, we suspect, an unwarranted addition. We think Mr. Todd is seriously in error in putting the strength of Lee's army, at the opening of the campaign of 1864, at only 52,000 men; and in his note to page 48, in which he states that Grant had 140,000 men at that time, but that only 20,000 of these were effectives, he doubtless would have us read 120,000 for 20,000.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Avey, Mrs. H. E. G. Home and School Training. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.  
Baker, Mr. S. W. In the Heart of Africa. Funk & Wagnall. \$1.  
Campbell, Prof. J. L. Geology and Mineral Resources of the James River Valley. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.  
Corning, Dr. J. L. Brain Exhaustion, with Some Preliminary Considerations on Cerebral Dynamics. D. Appleton & Co. \$2.  
Dawson, S. E. A Study, with Critical and Explanatory Notes, of Lord Tennyson's The Princess. Second Edition. Montreal: Dawson Brothers.  
The Art of Oratory: System of Deisarte. With an Essay on the Attributes of Reason by François Deisarte. 2d ed. Albany: Edgar S. Werner.  
Wiggin, Edith E. Lessons on Manners for School and Home Use. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.

## Fine Arts.

## THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.—III.

PERHAPS the best test of the real vitality of any school of art which can be recognized by the general public is its treatment of portraiture. And it is at once a test of the taste of the community and the power of the painter; for a public that does not care for art *per se* will only care for what are called "faithful" portraits, nor will the commonplace painter care to labor for more than contents his client. The greatest schools of art have always been marked by the preëminent quality of their portraiture at their highest attainment. Raphael, Titian, Veronese, Rembrandt, Tintoret, Rubens, Velasquez, in fact, all the great technists, have given their portraits the best of their powers and sometimes the

highest of their art. Even the French heroic school, with its absurd classicism, did good work in portraiture, and the best art England has ever produced was in her portrait school. A man who cannot make a good portrait may do clever and amusing genre or landscape, but not good ideal work in any vein, and the surest indication of an art given up to trivialities and surface technicalities may be seen at once in the weakness or non-existence of portraiture. One class of men avoid it because they are incapable of the sustained discipline which it demands as the indispensable condition of success, and another fails in it because it has no perception of character, which is the foundation of all true idealism; weaker men, because the severe drawing which is the basis of it is impossible to them even with patience and their utmost sincerity. A common delusion which artists and art lovers often permit to themselves is that, as fidelity to the external appearance of a man is not the highest vein of portraiture, therefore a painter who cannot draw well may still be capable of doing something better, and give the true character of the man without giving his face—which is simply a consolation to failure. There may be something in art higher than exact truth to the forms of nature, but no man can reach it except through those forms, or at least without the refinement of drawing which enables him to attain them when he will. The conditions of the ideal are too obscure and subtle to dogmatize about, but it is safe to say that the painter whose hand and eye do not permit him to be true to what he does see, will not safely attempt an ideal which he does not. There is no escaping the law that the ideal is only to be found in the actual; beyond it, it may be, but through it inevitably.

The condition of our portraiture, as seen in this exhibition at least, is not therefore encouraging for the future of our art. With the exception of the single portrait by Millet, No. 210, there is not a single head by any of our younger men which shows a resolute attempt to meet all the conditions of portraiture. This is, so far as can be judged from the portrait alone, a thorough piece of characterization—too individual not to be true—and the classic sympathies of the painter are shown in the treatment of the accessories, the subtle play of pale tints, and the frank severity of the design. A deeper key of color would have better suited the exhibition room, and perhaps have made the work more impressive, but its subtlety and refinement are certain to win their way to those who will give it the study it deserves.

Eastman Johnson's two portraits, Nos. 70 and 259, are strongly painted and characterized heads, and, so far as the general public is allowed to know, at the very front of American portraiture; certainly in the exhibition there is nothing to rival their solid qualities of color and drawing, and, with the exception of the portrait of Hiram Powers, by Page, No. 461, nothing so individual in character. Mr. Johnson, however, in the accessories, shows the tendency of the mere portrait school—all that is not demanded by an unartistic clientèle is left out. In this respect Millet stands at the head of the portraitists of the exhibition. The head of Powers, which the catalogue describes as "painted about 1848," cannot be of that date, as Page did not go to Europe till after 1849. It shows, too, the method which Page adopted when he went abroad, by which he believed he had got the qualities of Titian—i. e., using pure color in repeated paintings over a solidly prepared ground. Titian certainly did use such a method in his flesh sometimes, and possibly generally where the flesh was the important element of the work, but he did not use it throughout the pictures, as Page has done, nor did he ever paint his accessories in so flimsy a manner as they are painted here. But the picture is in character and in certain qualities of color a proof that Page's friends did not overrate his powers, which might easily, but for his obsession by theories, have made him the greatest of American portrait painters thus far. A sketch of Sumner, No. 662, apparently the beginning of a portrait, also by Page, is very grand in character.

Mr. Porter, in his portrait of a lady, No. 124, pushes Mr. Johnson very closely, and in general treatment of accessories and pictorial completeness goes beyond him, as we see him here. This half-length is admirable not only for its well-painted head, but for the figure, so well posed and real. The portrait by the Vice President of the Academy, No. 324, is strong and in general effect of color good, but with over-hot shadows, which interfere with the solidity of the head, as if the flesh let light through from within. No. 403, by Edgar M. Ward, is evidently excellent as likeness and painted with vigor and skill, but in all the accessories, even the hair, with a reckless and heartless dexterity which is rather mannerism than style. Hicks's portrait of Dr. Wood is a professional success, but hardly up to the work the artist used to do twenty years ago. Of Miss Barber's portrait of a child, No. 274, we have already spoken, and we recur to it now only as fitting in a notice devoted to portraiture.

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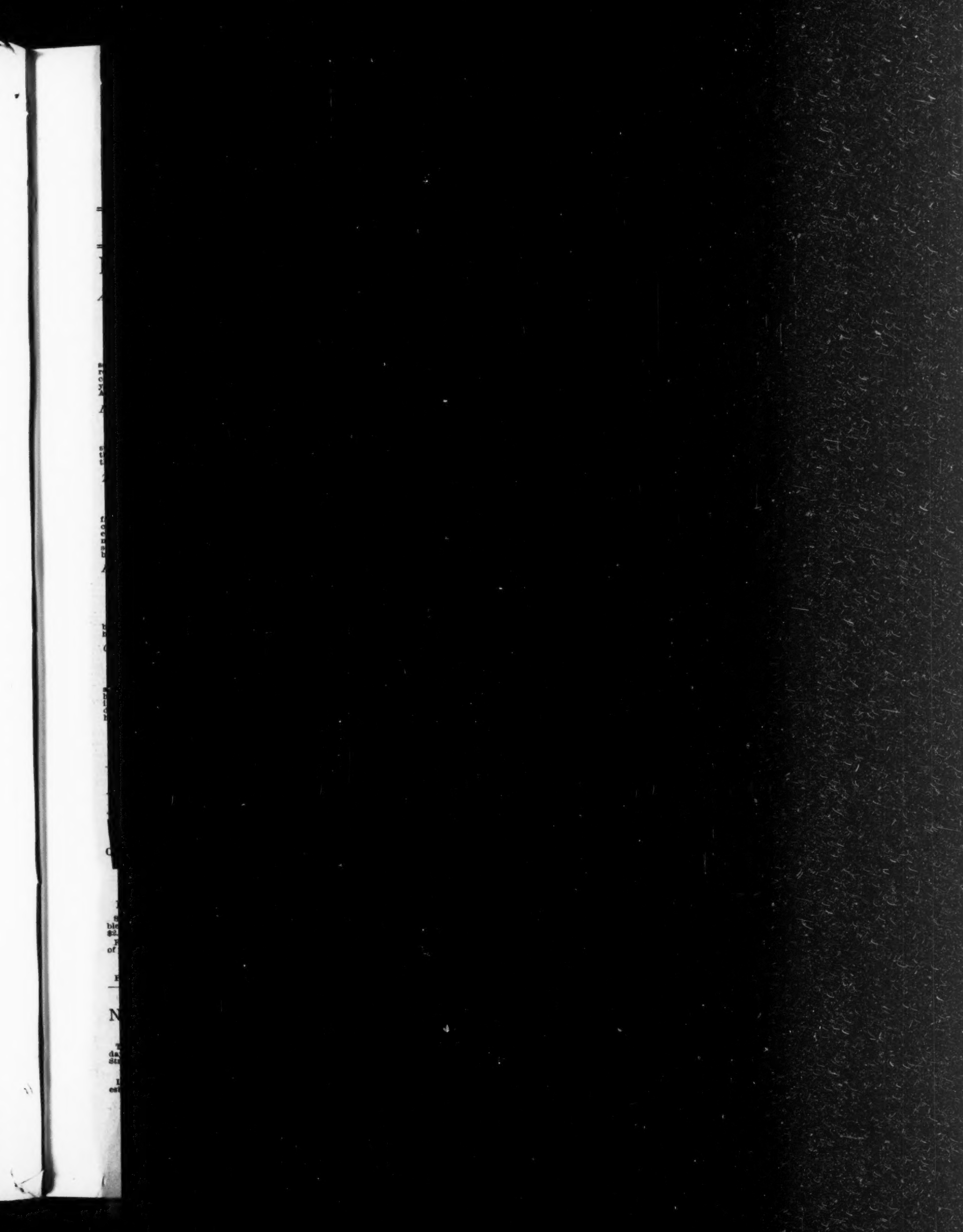
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